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This Issue in Brief

A longshoreman working at a United States port is not covered by the accident compensation laws if he is injured on the deck of a vessel or even on the gangplank. This anomalous situation results from various court decisions which have held that as soon as a longshoreman leaves the dock or wharf he loses the protection of the State compensation law and comes under admiralty law. The only apparent remedy for this situation is the enactment of legislation by Congress bringing longshoremen under the protection of Federal accident compensation. Bills of this character are now pending in Congress, page 1.

The extent of the work of plant emergency hospitals and the quality of service rendered by them is shown in an article giving the results of a field study by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the personnel activities of about 450 industrial establishments in many branches of industry. Nearly 2,000,000 workers were employed by the 407 companies listed as providing medical service, the work of the plant hospitals ranging from the care of accident and emergency cases alone to complete medical treatment which frequently includes members of families as well as the employees themselves, page 7.

The consumers' cooperative movement in the United States suffered severely in the general depression of 1920-21. The undertakings which survived, however, have more than held their own. Between 1920 and 1925, according to a study just completed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, all consumers' societies combined showed an increase in average membership of 39 per cent, while the grocery societies increased 50 per cent. Average sales per society increased 5.7 per cent; and if allowance be made for the decrease in retail prices between 1920 and 1925, the average sales per member increased about 22 per cent. Total sales of societies reporting amounted in 1925 to almost \$50,000,000. Profits were earned at the rate of 3.8 per cent on sales and of 29.3 per cent on share capital, page 20.

The importance of good lighting in contributing to a reduction in the number of industrial accidents has not been fully recognized, as the quality of the illumination is frequently overlooked in reports showing accident causes. A number of casualty companies having a wide experience with this class of accidents agree, however, that poor illumination is a prolific cause of accidents, one company estimating that from 13 to 20 per cent of all industrial accidents are due to this cause, page 70.

A study of industrial home work in the vicinity of Philadelphia in 1924 showed that children as young as 6 years were being employed. A description of the situation found by the investigators and of the effect of the measures taken to improve it is given on page 128.

Children in part-time schools in Iowa were made the subject of a study by the State bureau of labor to determine the real causes for their leaving school. The reasons, as given by the children, with some discussion of their validity, will be found on page 127.

Causes of labor turnover among a group of woman workers, as published by the Federal Women's Bureau, are given on page 125. Dis-satisfaction with wages and hours led, closely followed by lay-offs. A summary is given of industrial conditions closely associated with the short tenure of jobs.

The unemployment fund in the New York Cloth Hat, Cap, and Millinery Workers' Union has now been in operation about two years. The fund is made up of a contribution by employees of 3 per cent of the weekly pay roll. The recent report of the chairman of the fund shows that for the period September 12, 1924, to June 30, 1926, the total income of the fund was \$169,367 and that the benefit payments for the first year amounted to \$65,383, representing payments to 1,495 persons for a total of 6,614 weeks of unemployment. The new collective agreement in this industry, running to 1929, includes a provision for continuing the unemployment fund, page 157.

Tests showing the amounts of radioactive element deposited in the body of a chemist who had been exposed for 14 years to alpha, beta, and gamma rays from radioactive substances prove for the first time that these substances can get into the body by way of the lungs alone. The chemist died of an acute leucopenic anemia and the quantitative examination for the radioactivity of the postmortem tissues showed that there was a permanent deposit of the intense beta and alpha radiation in the blood-forming centers which had been taken into the body through the lungs, page 67.

Studies of the wages and working conditions of office employees are rare, but the Massachusetts Department of Labor and Industries has recently issued the report of such an investigation in that State, the data given being as of May 1, 1926. Salient points are the extent to which women are used in office work, their almost complete taking over of certain occupations, and the difference in the salary scale for men and women, even when employed in the same occupations, page 141.

What becomes of the benefits awarded under compensation laws when the recipient dies, or for other cause is no longer entitled to continuing payments? An award may be made for a definite period; and the injured man die from another cause during the term. Are his heirs entitled to the unpaid balance? A widow's marriage may terminate her right, or one of a group of children die; does such an event affect the rights of other beneficiaries? Some of the laws are explicit, some require construction, and in some the courts have applied rules not apparent to the casual reader of the statute. A summary of these provisions and constructions is given in an article on page 75.

*An employment system providing that owners and operators of vessels shall surrender to a single agency the entire business of employing seamen, making it impossible for either men or masters to act otherwise than through the prescribed channel, is held to be a monopoly in violation of the Federal antitrust act in *Anderson v. Shipowners of the Pacific coast*, page 132.*

Due to war conditions, the British Government suspended the publication of its annual abstract of labor statistics after issuing the 17th edition, early in 1915. The 18th edition has just been brought out, and on page 148 will be found material taken from it on wages and weekly hours of work at the beginning of 1926 for selected occupations in certain important industries and trades.

Average weekly earnings in the British iron, steel, and other metal trades in 1924 are shown on page 145, together with normal weekly hours, average hours actually worked, and average hourly earnings. The per cent of the employees working short time in a specified week, and the number of hours lost per worker are also given. The figures are those published by the English Government, as derived from an official investigation.

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Longshoremen Ask Congressional Action

By LOUISE F. SHIELDS

OME of us who are interested in the welfare of our fellow men are distressed to learn that a man who slips on a defective gangplank while carrying our trunks from dock to steamer may have no right to compensation for his injury under the State laws, because of the present confusion between the jurisdiction of State compensation laws and that of admiralty law which determines the rights of maritime workers.

We are shocked to find that his coworker, the stevedore, who stows our baggage in the hold, has no redress from the State if the heavy cargo swinging from the deck-operated winch should fall and strike him.

And we are stirred by the fact that the ship repairman who made the boiler safe for the high steam pressure of our trip surrendered his compensation privileges when he stepped on board the vessel.

If any one of these three were to suffer partial or total disability, he would lose his wages during absence from work, and would pay his own hospital and doctor's bills; and in case of his death, the bereft family would receive no compensation unless recovery could be made through a lawsuit which might cost more than the indemnity asked.

The Situation of the Injured Worker

LEGISLATIVE efforts have been made to correct this situation, but without avail. After the first workmen's compensation acts were passed, harbor workers, numbering one-third of a million in the United States, were included in the operation of these laws without question until 1917.

In 1914 a man named Jensen was unloading a vessel in New York harbor with the aid of an electric freight truck, on which he rode. The truck jammed against a guide strip on the gangway; he reversed, and, failing to lower his head struck it against an overhead structure, and was caught between it and the lumber with which his truck was loaded, suffering a broken neck and death. Compensation fixed by the State law for such an accident was awarded, and the State courts upheld the award; but the United States Supreme Court in 1917 ruled by a 5 to 4 decision that the accident on board ship was "maritime," and therefore outside the State jurisdiction.

Even when a vessel is in dry dock, and no longer afloat in the water, there is no recourse to State compensation. Seven or eight repairmen on a boat in a dry dock were killed by an explosion and several others injured. Compensation was denied. Although the accident took place while the boat was in dry dock, it was declared to be a maritime injury, and within admiralty jurisdiction. There was no maritime significance involved in the operation beyond the fact that the subject of alteration and repair was an instrument of transportation by water. The workers lived at home and were employed by a corporation within the terms of local compensation laws as to injuries to their workmen.

In another State a workman in a factory was sent by the factory manager to superintend the unloading of some material from a barge. While still on shore this man was struck by a stone which was being lowered from the barge by a crane. He brought suit under admiralty but was told the case was outside admiralty jurisdiction because he was on land when hurt. To the legal mind the distinction in jurisdiction may be easy to grasp, but it is difficult for the layman, and especially for the workers who are affected.

A man who met an injury while pushing a truck on the dock received compensation. A few weeks later he had a similar accident while pushing a truck on the deck of a ship, and was refused compensation.

A workman going up the ship side fell by reason of a defective rung in the ship's ladder and was caught between the ship and the dock. He suffered a sprained shoulder but was awarded compensation for injury to the part of his body which touched the dock, as being a land accident, but not for the injury to his shoulder, as being a maritime accident.

A maritime accident that was settled on a basis which exonerated the employer from responsibility for the neglect of his foreman is that of *Allen v. Old Dominion S. S. Co.* (211 N. Y. S. 80.)

Allen was a dock hand, working on the dock, but was called by the foreman of the stevedores to come to the deck of the ship to roll back the tarpaulin from one of the hatches. The foreman knew that the cross-back of the hatch which supported the hatch cover had fallen out and was lying upon the floor of the hold, but notwithstanding this knowledge he ordered Allen to go upon the top of the hatch and roll back the tarpaulin. Allen did as he was told. The whole hatch, with its covers, collapsed.

In commenting upon this case Harry S. Austin, attorney for the International Longshoremen's Association, stated to the judiciary committee of the House of Representatives:

Allen recovered a verdict of \$8,000; and the appellate division reversed it upon the ground that the negligence of the foreman in failing to replace the cross-back, and in ordering Allen to mount the hatch, with the knowledge that it had not been replaced, was his negligence [i. e., as of a fellow servant] and not that of his master, and that the injured employee could not recover. The decision of the appellate division was affirmed by the Court of Appeals of New York. * * *

The negligence of the foreman or superintendent, of course, is taken care of under the employers' liability act. But we have not got the benefit of the (State) employers' liability act. The United States Supreme Court has held that any law of that character passed by the States, if in force in the admiralty courts, would change the general admiralty law as it exists throughout the world, and therefore the State legislatures have no right to legislate in matters of that kind.

So there we are, left high and dry, up against that proposition, of unsafe places, unsafe tools, or incompetent fellow servants.¹

Relative Position Under Liability and Compensation Systems

MANY have questioned why the longshoremen would not be so well off under the "sue or settle" method as under State compensation, since the steamship and stevedoring companies must carry accident insurance for their employees.

The principal difference, as stated by a safety engineer, lies in the fact that the insurance companies pay the indemnity promptly when the compensation scale is fixed by law. But in almost all other cases those same companies use every known legal technicality for evading payment, such as that (1) a fellow servant was to blame, (2) the worker took the risk, or (3) the worker's negligence contributed to the accident.

The seaman is better off than a longshoreman under the "sue or settle" method, as the Jones Act modifies the employer's right to plead the common-law defenses.¹ The longshoreman suffers the cost of litigation and the time lost in complicated and tedious court procedure.

"Shyster" lawyers flourish in all harbor towns and have earned the title "ambulance chasers" because of their alacrity in pursuit of an injured workman. The man who is injured at 10 in the morning frequently has suit started before offices close at 5 that afternoon. But for the offer of service from such a lawyer, who will waive his fee in case of losing the verdict, the average longshoreman would hesitate to bring suit. For he knows the costs would be greater than his wages for the time he might be laid off from work. These lawyers try to wring towering settlements from the companies with which the employers are insured.

Employers declare that the fixed compensation rate is more economical than the "sue or settle" method, for it means moderate payments for all injuries, rather than the large sums awarded by juries in the few cases which do actually come into court and receive favorable judgment. One manager says, "Juries never think in terms of less than \$10,000."

But perhaps the greatest benefit from the compensation system comes to the employer through the friendlier attitude of the workers. Suspicion gives way to forbearance and cooperation. Relaxation of mental tension lessens the probability of damage to persons and property.

Transformation of the Longshore Worker

DESPITE the injustice of keeping from compensation privileges a third of a million of essential workers at extra-hazardous jobs, one must recognize the fact that for centuries public opinion has placed harbor workers outside the pale of community life. "Longshoreman" has been synonymous with wharf rat, floater, idler, mal-

¹EDITOR'S NOTE.—This and similar statements elsewhere in this article, as well as statements of like effect appearing in earlier issues of the Labor Review, must be revised in the light of the recent opinion of the United States Supreme Court in *International Stevedoring Co. v. Haverty*, 47 Sup. Ct. 19, decided Oct. 18, 1926. The decision there was that the act of June 5, 1920 (41 Stat. 1007), giving to seamen the same rights and remedies as are given to railway employees by the liability act of 1908-1910 is applicable to stevedores as well as to seamen of other classes. This overrules the contrary opinion which was based on a decision of a circuit court of appeals of 1918. (*The Hoquiam*, 253 Fed. 627, 165 C. C. A. 253.)

content, trouble maker, and in many cases, anarchist—whether in New York, Liverpool, Yokohama, or Singapore, a floater, who declares the world owes him a living and who attempts to collect that debt in the easiest way.

The job of longshoreman, however, has itself undergone a change within a decade. An outstanding example of stabilizing a migratory group of harbor workers is the experience of the waterfront employers of Seattle. Here the most casual of all casual jobs has been decasualized in fact and not merely in theory.

Seattle had as great trouble as any port in the world at the time of the World War and immediately afterwards. From 1916 to 1920 there were prolonged and serious strikes. These strikes caused loss of time and money for both employers and employees, and left the community with a bitter memory of delayed sailings, destruction of property, and disregard for safety of life and limb.

The new epoch in cargo handling began for Seattle when the Pacific Steamship Co. took the lead in forming a dock council of men and management in 1920, and paved the way for the present waterfront employers' organization, with joint control of wages, hours, and working conditions, and methods of regularizing longshore work.

Transformation of the worker from the restless, wandering type to the substantial resident citizen is evidenced by the fact that of the men now listed for call at Pier 11 B, Seattle, two-thirds are married, one-fourth own homes, and a majority have telephones and remain at home until called for their jobs. Men no longer squander their time waiting around the docks for jobs, nor do they fight with brute strength for the chance to be first at the ship's side when work begins.

Equalized earnings, job security, a central paying system, and the reduction in severity of accidents through the addition of a safety engineer to the administrative staff, have developed a group of steady, resident workers who give their employers little concern about sabotage, pilfering, or loss of goods through delayed sailings or overdue delivery.

The Seattle organization represents only a small proportion of the humane employers throughout the United States who have recognized the change in type of harbor workers. These employers in several cities, deplored the legal technicalities which deprive these half-land-and-half-sea workers of privileges they would enjoy on land duty, have joined with prominent members of the United States Shipping Board, civic bodies, and many groups of organized labor in seeking congressional action to relieve a third of a million men from the unsatisfactory "sue or settle" remedy.

The Legislative Situation

CONGRESS has passed two such laws, in 1917 and 1922. Both were declared unconstitutional on the ground that the power delegated to the States would interfere with the proper harmony and uniformity of maritime law. Mr. Justice Holmes, one of the four dissenting in the Jensen case, says, "The reasoning in this case and others following it has never satisfied me. I should like to see a limit set to the principle."

Mr. Justice Brandeis, who also dissented, says, "Absolute uniformity in things maritime is confessedly nonessential to the proper harmony of the maritime law in its interests and international relations."

Seven years after the Jensen case, in February, 1924, Mr. Justice McReynolds pronounced this opinion in another case:

Without doubt Congress has power to alter, amend, or revise the maritime law by statutes or general application embodying its will and judgment. This power, we think, would permit enactment of a general employers' liability law or general provisions for compensating injured employees; but it may not be delegated to the several States.

The grant of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction looks to uniformity; otherwise wide discretion is left to Congress. Exercising another power—to regulate commerce—Congress has prescribed the liability of interstate carriers by railroads for damage to employees, and thereby abrogated conflicting local rules.

This cause presents a situation where there was no attempt to prescribe general rules. On the contrary, the manifest purpose was to permit any State to alter the maritime law and thereby introduce conflicting requirements. To prevent this result, the Constitution adopted the law of the sea as the measure of maritime rights and obligations. The confusion and difficulty, if vessels were compelled to comply with the local statutes at every port, were not difficult to see. Of course, some within the State may prefer local rules; but the Union was formed with the very definite design of freeing maritime commerce from intolerable restrictions incident to such control. The subject is national. Local interests must yield to the common welfare. The Constitution is supreme.

After the two laws passed by Congress were declared unconstitutional, many additional bills were submitted. Early in the last session, duplicate bills were presented under the numbers H. R. 9498, and S. 3170. In the draft of these bills an effort was made to steer away from the rock which wrecked their predecessors, the charge of delegating to the States the power which belongs to the United States admiralty. So Federal compensation was substituted for State compensation for harbor workers.

These bills provided that employers should insure payment of accident indemnity by any of the common authorized methods; that administration of the act should be through local Federal deputies, making such use of State compensation officials as may be arranged for, all under the unifying supervision of the United States Employees' Compensation Commission, created in 1916 by Congress; that every employer should pay compensation for injury without regard to the fault or responsibility for injury except on proof of willful intent of the injured employee.

These bills included rehabilitation for disabled workmen, and laid special emphasis upon accident prevention. The Government was to bear none of the cost; even the necessary preliminary appropriation to initiate the administration of the law was to be repaid.

The Judiciary Committees of the House and the Senate modified the original bills. The Senate passed the new bill with the provision that longshoremen and ship repairmen be placed under the scale of benefits named in the United States employees' compensation act, with a weekly maximum of only \$15.40.

Organized labor declares the present modified form of the House bill more satisfactory than the Senate bill, but is doubtful of securing its passage by the Senate if adopted by the House. So labor is likely to ask that the Senate bill be brought before the House, with certain modifications in the scale of settlement.

All groups seem to accept the principles embodied in both of these bills, and to be in a mood to come to an agreement about the details of administration. Representatives of the shipowners and the harbor workers, brought together by the American Association for Labor Legislation, have agreed on more than 30 disputed points.

The House Judiciary Committee, when reporting the bill, May 6, 1926, unanimously recommended that "this humanitarian legislation be speedily enacted into law so that this class of workers, practically the only class without the benefit of workmen's compensation, may be afforded this protection."

Senator William E. Borah expressed this conviction:

The class of longshoremen need the protection of compensation as much if not more than any other class of workmen. Their occupation, so essential to the prosperity of the trade of the United States, is extra hazardous, both on account of its nature and the pressure under which it must often be performed. It is unjust to these men and their families that the burden of loss resulting from thousands of accidents annually should be left by the law upon their shoulders. The resulting discontent and dissatisfaction are easy to understand.

The ship repairmen form also a large class among whom injuries are frequent, and they find it difficult to understand why the carpenter, the brass worker, or the plumber employed to repair a ship in the harbor should receive no compensation, while if he were employed in a building on the dock, he would be protected by the State compensation law.

The American Association for Labor Legislation says through its secretary, John B. Andrews:

America, step by step, has discarded as unfit the outgrown and discredited system of employers' liability suits for damages. Congress, also, has adopted the modern principle of workmen's compensation for all civilian employees of the Government. Experience has shown the superior advantages of workmen's compensation to injured workmen, to their employers, and to the whole community.

There can be but one satisfactory remedy for local harbor workers—a Federal accident compensation law. But these men, longshoremen and ship repairmen, are employed not only in our seaports and along the lake fronts, but are scattered throughout the country along river landings; in fact, wherever their work is to be done upon vessels afloat. With benefits at least as liberal as the compensation law of New York, where many of the workers of both related classes reside, a Federal commission, with its deputies authorized to exercise similar functions by State appointment, could insure prompt and efficient administration.

The time is more than ripe for this comprehensive and final solution of a vexatious national problem. For years hundreds of thousands of our most essential workers at the docks have been shuttled about—"out again, in again"—by closely divided opinions of the highest court. Patiently they have exhausted every legal approach to the local compensation remedy. Both they and their employers are now left in a situation that is indefensible and unbearable.

Upon considering Mr. Andrews's statement and other testimony, the disinterested observer sees little importance in the decision as to the methods of the two bills. The Senate and the House bills are practically identical in effect. Both utilize the existing United States Employees' Compensation Commission. They provide similar procedure. Both make provision for the necessary appeal to the courts. Both require the employer to secure compensation. The benefit provisions of the House bill, however, are based on the law of New York, while the Senate bill substitutes the benefits provided in the Federal act, a lower scale of compensation than in the New York law.

The vital concern of the longshoremen is that Congress take immediate action for one or the other of the plans which may conform with the Supreme Court's interpretation of the Constitution.

Medical and Hospital Service for Industrial Employees

A STUDY of the personnel activities carried on in various types of manufacturing industries and in commercial and transportation enterprises has been made recently by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics. Information regarding these activities, secured from employers in about 450 establishments in different sections of the country, indicates the lines along which personnel work has developed during recent years as compared with conditions 10 years ago, when a similar study was made by the bureau.

It appears from the present study that there has been a quite definite development in industrial medical work, the provision of adequate hospital facilities being much more general now than at the time the previous study was made. Workmen's compensation laws have undoubtedly been an important factor in the development of industrial hospital service, since in a hazardous industry it is necessary to provide immediate and efficient care if the results of accidents are to be minimized. On the other hand, the benefits of this care have been so obvious that in many instances it has been carried far beyond the immediate needs of the industry, and the work has been extended to the supervision of the general health of the workmen. In nonhazardous industries this has been especially true. Undernourished employees are given special attention; the dangers of approaching old age are guarded against; the periodic examination is either required or employees are urged to report for it; and chronic conditions are treated or employees are referred to the proper specialists or hospitals for the needed care.

The results of special research have also benefited those employed in industry, although sometimes not until a new process or substance has taken its toll of the lives or health of the workmen. The use of poisonous substances in industry is widespread. The dangers of many of these are known and guarded against but the introduction of new substances very often involves serious consequences to the workman which are not foreseen by the industry or which have not been sufficiently investigated before the new process was installed or the new product developed. Recent examples of such processes, the introduction of which has been attended by loss of life and great suffering on the part of the injured employees, are the manufacture of tetraethyl lead gasoline, the use of radioactive paints in the painting of watch and clock dials, and the use of phosphorus in the manufacture of fireworks. Numerous cases of benzol poisoning occurred following the greatly increased use of benzol after the war before its effects were thoroughly investigated, and although the dangers of lead poisoning are well known and its early recognition is now possible, many cases of lead poisoning which might be prevented still occur. Nor do these things occur only in the small plants which are unable to afford an adequate medical service; even organizations with ample resources have failed to take the necessary measures to prevent such occurrences.

The World War taught much in regard to the care of wounds which has been utilized in industry, while the last decade has seen developments in the field of public health which have been reflected in the care which is being taken of the health of the workers. Health has been and is being popularized in this country. The tuberculosis

and cancer campaigns have had an educational effect and there has been something of a movement on the part of medical organizations to teach the public the value of prevention—a movement in which the industrial physician has had a share. The trade-union organizations, too, are beginning to realize that they can do something to improve the physical condition of their members as witnessed by the accomplishments of the Union Health Center and of the more recently organized Workers' Health Bureau in New York. Altogether it may be said that the past 10 years have seen a decided extension in the medical service maintained for industrial workers.

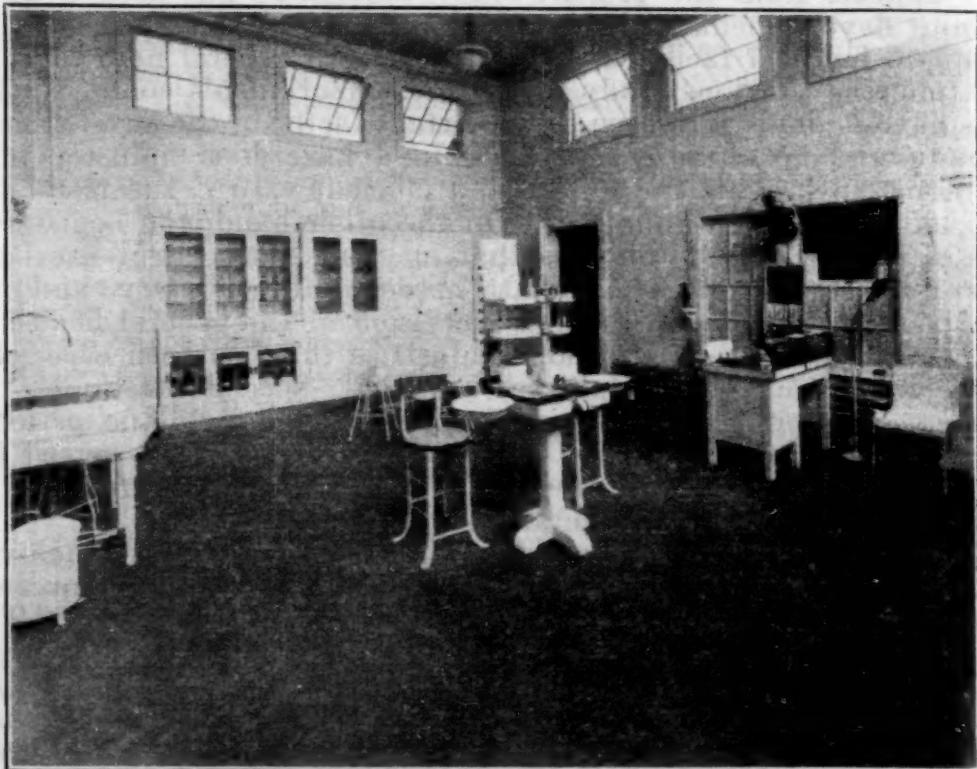


FIG. 1.—DRESSING AND TREATMENT ROOM

Plant Hospitals and Medical Service

FIRST-AID or emergency hospitals are found in all types of industries, as it is quite generally recognized wherever any considerable number of persons is employed, that they are necessary to the satisfactory operation of the business. While the necessity for caring for the health of employees is just as urgent in smaller establishments, there is frequently either complete lack of first-aid provisions or the care extended is of a very superficial character. This is necessarily so as far as the individual plant is concerned, as the costs of really satisfactory medical service are prohibitive for small concerns. The provision of adequate medical service in such establishments presents, therefore, a real problem, about the only solution of which seems to be the organization of a medical service by a group of industries whose plants are near enough together to make feasible the sharing of the services of an industrial physician or the provision of a central hospital.

The establishments scheduled by the bureau in the present study were in the main large ones, only a very small number having fewer

than 300 employees, while many of them employed thousands of workers. A total of 430 companies was found to be carrying on enough personnel work of various kinds to warrant securing a schedule. In some cases a large number of plants of one company or corporation have been counted but once since the information in these cases has been given by the company for the plants as a whole without regard to their location or distance from each other or the varying conditions they have to meet.

Nearly 2,000,000 workers were employed by the 407 companies listed as providing medical service and the progress which has been made during the past 10 years in the quality of the service rendered is shown by the fact that of the 375 plants which were reported in the 1916 study as having some sort of provision for treatment of their employees, 110 had first-aid equipment only, consisting of first-aid cabinets and sometimes cots, stretchers, and pulmometers, while in the present study 373 had one or more treatment rooms and only 34 the limited first-aid equipment.

Table 1 shows the number of establishments reporting the various medical facilities and the number and class of medical attendants, by industries.

Table 2 shows by industries the number of accidents and medical cases reported by the 98 companies which had records on this point.

TABLE 1.—NUMBER OF ESTABLISHMENTS HAVING EMERGENCY HOSPITALS AND FIRST-AID EQUIPMENT AND NUMBER AND CLASS OF MEDICAL ATTENDANTS, BY INDUSTRIES

Industry	Number of establish- ments	Employees			Number of establishments reporting—				
		Male	Female	Total	First- aid- equip- ment only	Hos- pi- tal or emer- gen- cy rooms	Doc- tor	Nurse	At- tend- ants trained in first aid
Automobiles	19	239,006	8,933	247,939	—	19	16	18	7
Boots and shoes	5	14,959	10,081	25,040	—	5	4	5	—
Chemicals and allied products	7	9,245	4,660	13,905	2	5	5	5	2
Clothing and furnishings	16	8,367	19,100	27,467	8	8	7	7	6
Electrical supplies	18	61,578	18,259	79,837	1	17	15	16	3
Fine machines and instruments	13	38,774	14,418	53,192	—	13	12	13	—
Food products	12	11,826	8,711	20,537	1	11	8	8	2
Foundries and machine shops	49	112,116	13,091	125,207	—	49	44	40	13
Iron and steel	11	1 ² 77,905	1 ² 5,479	302,384	—	11	11	9	4
Mining—coal	7	1 ² 6,183	1 ² 102	1 ² 26,285	2	5	7	2	6
Mining, other	16	23,219	60	23,279	1	15	14	14	4
Offices	18	16,513	23,350	39,863	2	16	15	16	2
Ore reduction and smelting	6	8,593	152	8,745	—	6	4	4	1
Paper and paper goods	10	8,605	3,264	11,869	2	8	8	8	2
Printing and publishing	5	4,854	3,781	8,635	—	5	1	4	—
Public utilities (gas, electric light and power, and telephones)	17	88,423	33,658	122,081	3	14	15	11	3
Railroads, steam and electric	13	1 ² 113,387	1 ² 6,360	352,145	—	13	12	10	2
Rubber and composition goods	11	51,733	13,685	65,418	—	11	8	11	—
Stores	51	3 ⁴ 6,602	3 ⁴ 84,685	136,880	1	50	39	49	2
Textiles	43	39,214	34,921	74,135	3	40	33	38	6
Other industries	60	1 ² 100,028	1 ² 29,309	143,075	8	52	—	—	—
Total	407	3 ¹ ,301,130	3 ¹ 346,059	1 ¹ ,907,888	34	373	278	288	65

¹ Not including employees of 1 establishment not reported.

² Not including employees of 3 establishments not reported.

³ Not including employees of 7 establishments not reported.

TABLE 2.—NUMBER OF COMPANIES REPORTING CASES TREATED AND AVERAGE NUMBER OF ACCIDENT AND MEDICAL CASES AND RETREATMENTS PER MONTH BY INDUSTRIES

Industry	Number of establish- ments	Number of em- ployees	Average number of cases treated per month					
			Accident		Medical		Total accident and medical	
			New	Total, includ- ing re- treatments	New	Total, includ- ing re- treatments	New	Total, includ- ing re- treatments
Automobiles	12	190,989	70,999	162,884	43,814	44,823	114,813	207,707
Clothing and furnishings	2	4,860	480	607	1,027	1,244	1,507	1,851
Electrical supplies	7	39,516	6,498	18,890	8,593	9,332	15,091	28,222
Fine machines and instruments	5	15,826	2,721	8,288	3,129	3,759	5,850	12,047
Food products	3	10,554	2,836	3,903	3,091	3,210	5,927	7,113
Foundries and machine shops	17	38,638	6,995	16,465	8,157	16,437	15,152	32,902
Gold and silver ware	2	3,605	503	1,239	514	514	1,017	1,753
Iron and steel	3	18,200	1,926	10,648	204	711	2,130	11,359
Oil refining	1	13,738	1,139	4,671	1,637	3,814	2,776	8,485
Offices	2	10,593	1,004	2,596	2,162	4,152	3,166	6,748
Ore reduction and smelting	1	2,600	702	1,979	185	185	887	2,164
Paper and paper goods	5	5,412	579	1,365	1,508	2,058	2,087	3,423
Printing and publishing	2	5,511	425	1,211	2,404	3,404	2,829	4,615
Public utilities (gas, electric light and power, telephones)	3	51,918	7,440	15,868	12,966	14,312	20,406	30,180
Railroads, electric	1	12,000	300	1,035	260	495	560	1,530
Rubber and composition goods	6	33,489	7,879	16,037	8,443	13,421	16,322	29,458
Slaughtering and meat packing	1	7,700	500	2,000	400	1,000	960	3,000
Stores	4	14,850	943	1,240	3,370	4,854	4,313	6,094
Textiles	12	32,255	3,062	10,884	6,343	7,958	9,405	18,842
Other industries	9	16,254	3,635	8,634	4,936	8,431	8,571	17,065
Total	398	528,508	120,566	290,444	113,143	144,114	233,709	434,558

¹ Including 1 establishment in which no medical cases are treated.

² Including 2 establishments in which no medical cases are treated.

³ Including 3 establishments in which no medical cases are treated.

Special Medical Services

IN THE mining operations in different sections of the country the medical work is in the main carried on through company hospitals, both because of the hazardous nature of the work and also because of the fact that these properties are usually isolated and general hospital facilities are otherwise not available. For the latter reason, also, the families of the mine employees are usually cared for, though in most cases a fee is charged for major and sometimes for minor operations. In all the mining companies visited where such services are maintained, a medical fee, varying from \$1 to \$2.50 per month in the different mines, is deducted from the pay of the men. The fee may be from 25 to 75 cents less in the case of single men but in no case was it less than \$1. A few other instances were found of fixed deductions from the pay of employees for medical service—by iron and steel companies in the South, in many of the textile mills, and by two steamship companies, and one street-railway company. In some cases the medical work is in the charge of the mutual benefit association and the members' dues cover this work.

In nearly all cases where a fee is deducted from the pay, the service rendered the employees includes not only care of industrial accidents but also of sickness and nonindustrial accidents both at the hospital and in the homes. In many cases, ordinary medical service and medicine are provided for members of the employee's family and

in some instances no charge, other than the monthly deductions, is made, even for major operations. If fees for operations are charged they are usually much below the usual rates. In some cases the medical fee is not deducted from the pay unless the employee authorizes the company to do so; but more frequently the employee has no choice in the matter but becomes liable for the fee upon employment, and the amount is taken out of his first pay envelope.

One mining company maintains a system of visiting nurses in its various properties who take care of the sick under the instruction of the physicians and instruct the members of the family in the care of their sick and in matters of hygiene and sanitary living. The company considers this service, which has been maintained since

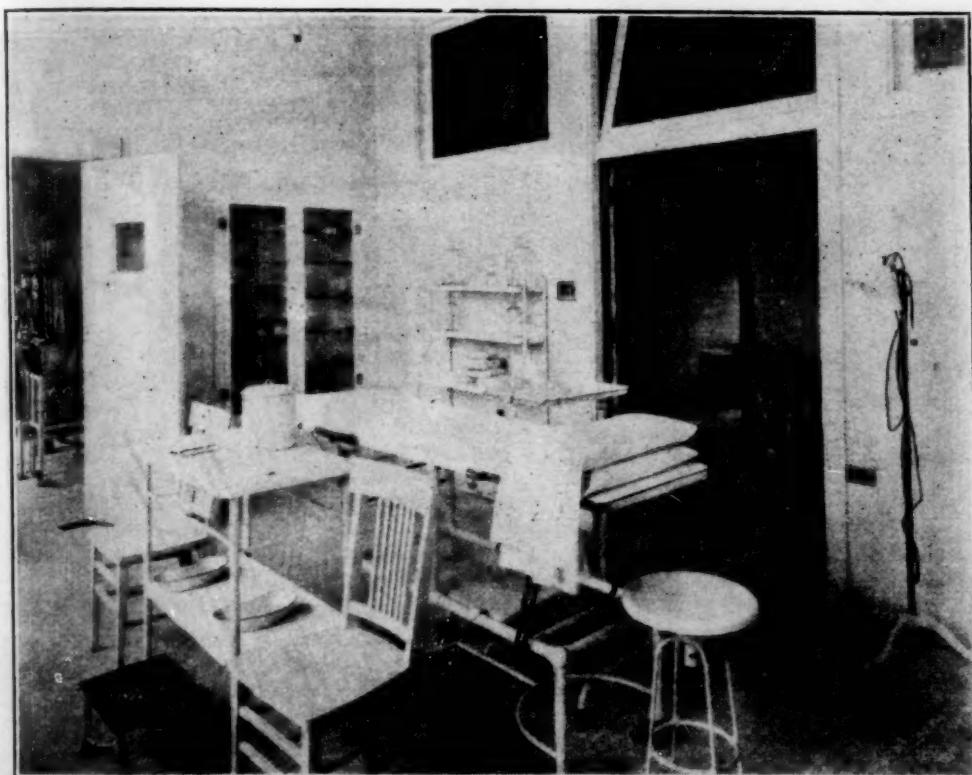


FIG. 2.—OPERATING AND DRESSING ROOM

1909, to be of the greatest importance. These nurses give prenatal care and are also of great assistance in helping young mothers in the care of their babies and young children. A rest cottage is also maintained by the company for two or three months each summer for wives of employees who are convalescing from sickness or who are in need of rest from overwork. The cottage is in the charge of a housekeeper and assistant and is under the supervision of the visiting nurses. The women remain from one to three weeks, or more if their condition requires longer rest, and the physicians report greatly improved conditions of health in many cases as a result of the rest and care they receive.

The medical division of a large company in the South with many properties operates a base hospital which is one of the best equipped in the country. This hospital has a capacity of 310 patients and a

staff of 19 physicians. No distinction as to the quality of the service rendered is made between colored and white employees and the hospital care is furnished at an extremely low rate. A force of 46 doctors has charge of the 17 dispensaries at the various works and villages and of the sanitation of these towns and of the general health of the employees and their families. For this service a charge of \$1.25 per employee per month is made.

The scope of the health work carried on by a number of companies is very extensive. One large manufacturing concern whose plants are located in two adjoining towns provides complete medical service for all workers and the dependent members of their families without charge. As the number of employees is approximately 17,000, it is estimated this service is available to at least 50,000 people. There

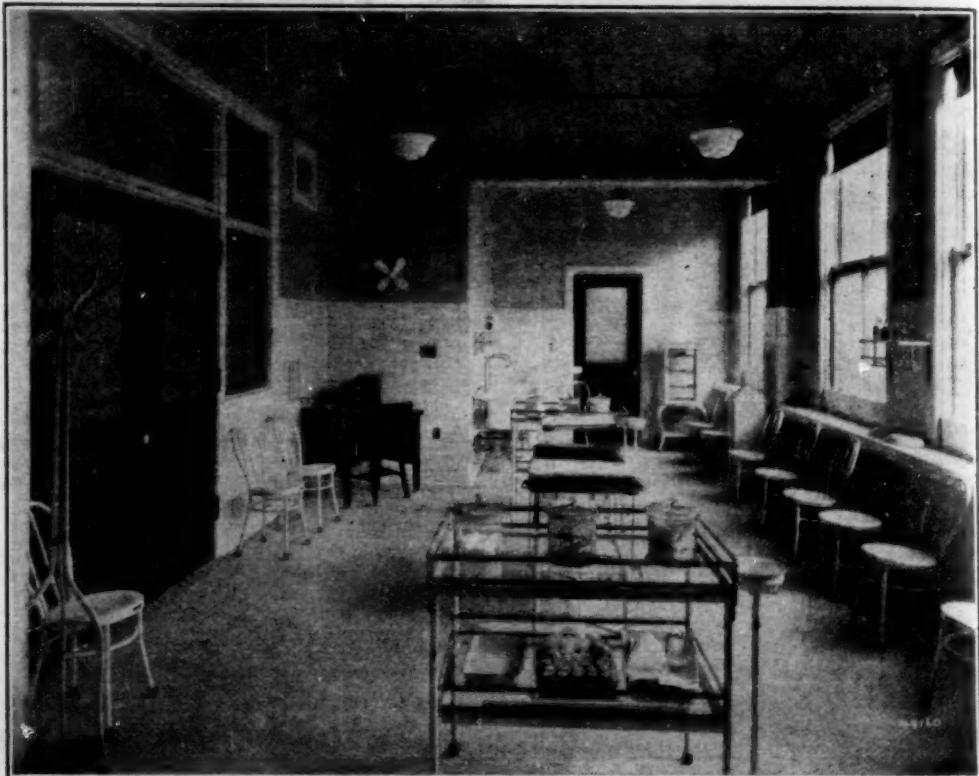


FIG. 3.—EMERGENCY HOSPITAL TREATMENT ROOM

are three main medical centers and one smaller dispensary, besides an isolation hospital and a rest home for convalescent women. Ambulance service is available day and night. On the staff are 29 doctors, 60 nurses, and about 60 other attendants, clerical workers, ambulance drivers, etc. The medical staff includes in addition to the general physicians, 3 surgeons, 4 dentists, 1 oculist, 2 ear, nose, and throat specialists, and 1 pediatrician. There is one central X-ray outfit and each center has its own laboratory. A trained masseur gives treatments for stiff joints and fractures and in cases of paralysis. The medical centers are equipped for minor surgical work only, major surgical cases being taken care of by the company surgeons and at the company's expense in the local hospital. Each medical center is equipped, however, to take care of maternity cases, all supplies for the mother and baby being furnished by the company. The con-

valescent home in the country, under the supervision of a trained nurse, accommodates 18 woman patients, who are allowed to stay there as long as necessary if convalescing from illness or in need of a rest. Cases which require special treatment not available there are taken to the large cities in the care of a trained nurse and all expenses are paid by the company. During 1925 the records show there were more than 122,000 office calls and 73,000 house calls in addition to the large amount of special work. The total cost of the medical service for the year was nearly \$708,000.

An example of outstanding health work which is confined to the employees of the company is that of an organization having a large force of clerical employees. The medical service provided, in addition to medical and surgical treatment, includes an eye clinic, dental

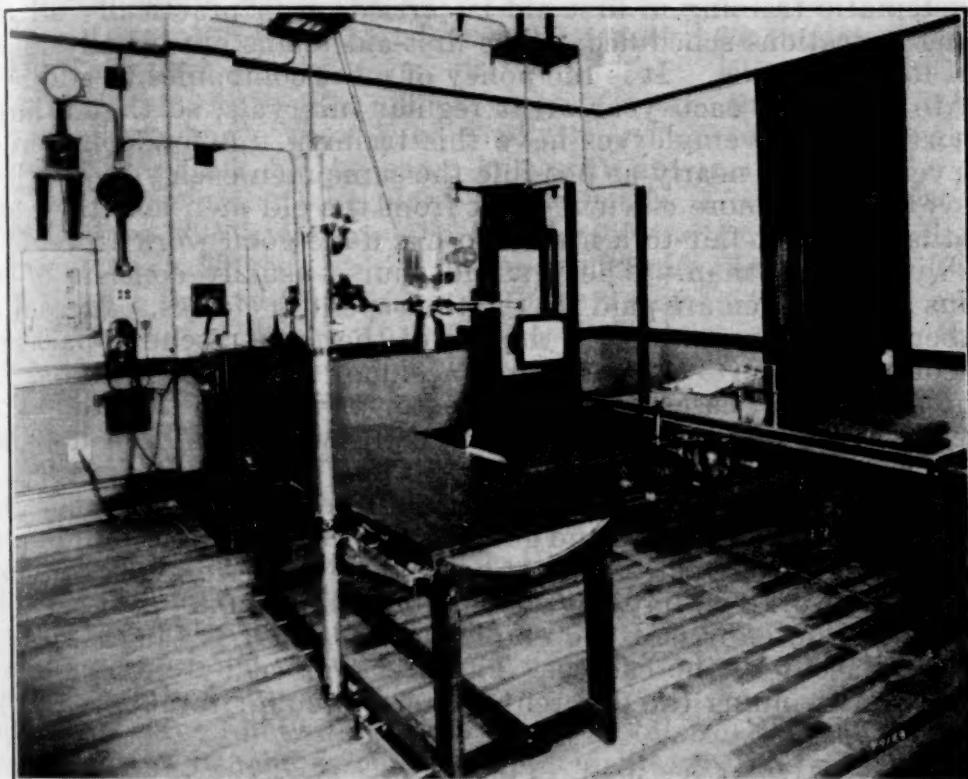


FIG. 4.—X-RAY ROOM

treatment, and the services of a psychiatrist. The dental work is confined to examination, prophylaxis, and the taking of X rays, but all employees are required to report twice a year for examination. In addition to entrance examinations for all employees, including mental tests for all applicants not college graduates, all employees are given a physical examination each year, these examinations being called for by the medical division as the employees' anniversaries are reached. The company also maintains one of the finest sanatoriums in the country in which both tubercular and other cases are treated.

First-Aid Equipment and Training

OWING to the hazardous nature of the work, first-aid stations and rescue rooms are maintained in most mines and first-aid kits are usually placed throughout the mine workings.

A coal company employing about 16,000 men has mine hospitals so placed that one can be reached in 10 or 15 minutes from any point in the workings in the different mines. These underground hospitals are of either cement or brick construction and are painted gray. Each one is equipped with bandages of different widths, first-aid packets, cotton, gauze, tourniquets, a limited number of drugs, rubber and woolen blankets kept in a cabinet or chest, towels kept in a box to be free from dust, and splints for different kinds of fractures. Two stretchers folded and hung on the wall are kept in each hospital room and in each room there is a table and two chairs and miscellaneous articles such as a drinking glass, spoons, washbasins, etc. These rooms are inspected regularly to see that all supplies are on hand and in good condition.

Systematic training in first aid is carried on in practically all the mining operations scheduled. The first-aid teams are usually made up of four men each. It is the policy of most companies to add new men to the team each year or at regular intervals, so that a large proportion of the employees have this training. A few companies, however, train as nearly as possible the same men each year, as they believe they get more efficient work from the old men and they feel also that it is not fair to a man who has done good work to replace him with a new man. The first-aid course usually consists of 12 lessons and the men are paid for the time spent in classes. A smaller number of men are trained in the use of the mine-rescue apparatus. One company reports that in case of accident the patient is cared for in the majority of cases before the doctor arrives and that the chief surgeon says that in almost every case the work has been done as well as he could do it himself.

First-aid contests are usually held in the summer and are made the occasion for a general picnic and good time for the employees and their families. In the competitive meet held by the mines of one company not only the workmen but the women and children take part as well, as, through the efforts of the employees, first aid is taught in the schools adjacent to the camps. The prizes given by one company to the teams winning the different contests amount to about \$1,000 annually.

Scope of the Work of the Medical Departments

THE emergency hospital equipment often is very elaborate, including the latest appliances of all kinds, operating rooms equipped for both major and minor operations, various special treatment rooms, physical examination rooms with cubicles to be used as dressing rooms, X-ray rooms, etc. Ninety-four of the establishments employ surgeons or physicians who are qualified to do all the necessary surgical work, so that accidents, however serious, may be cared for without the loss of time which is so important a factor in surgical cases. Most of the physicians lay great stress upon the prompt reporting of even slight injuries, in order that the risk of infection may be kept to a minimum. Most companies with adequate medical departments do not have any people trained in first aid in the plants, and frequently severe penalties are imposed for any attempt to remove foreign particles from the eyes of fellow workmen or to bind up cuts or scratches. This policy of prompt

and efficient care has resulted, in many instances, in a very marked reduction in the number of serious infections.

Although in many of the companies the care of accidents is the primary cause for the maintenance of emergency hospitals, many give medical attention also, while in the nonhazardous industries a good deal of constructive work along medical lines has been done. About 300 of the companies visited give free medical service to the employees, ranging from care of acute cases only to general health supervision. Of the 373 establishments which have emergency hospital equipment of varying degrees of completeness, 311 employ either full-time or part-time doctors, 30 have doctors on call, and the remainder do not employ any physician but employ trained nurses to give the first-aid treatments. Fifty-five establishments employ 1 full-time doctor, while 118 have the services of a physician for part of each day or for certain days in the week; 63 employ 2 doctors for all or part of the time; 21 employ 3; 49 employ numbers varying from 4 to 12, and 5 employ more than 12. In most cases where more than 7 or 8 physicians are employed either a number of plants of the same company are included in the work of the physicians or the plant is located in a company town and the medical work includes the families of the employees. Trained nurses are employed by 332 of the companies, and of this number 146 have 1 trained nurse each, 82 have 2 nurses, 29 have 3 nurses, 57 have from 4 to 8, while 15 have 8 or more. These figures include those companies which have a company hospital which takes care of the general medical work for the employees and their families as well as the accidents.

Both the number of physicians and the nurses employed may be contrasted with the extent of this service in 1916-17 when, of the 375 establishments reporting as having some sort of medical service, only 171 employed doctors, and 181 had trained nurses.

The emergency hospital work is, in a few instances, carried on in connection with the mutual benefit association, the employer giving the space and the equipment and usually making a contribution to the association funds. In the majority of cases, however, the employer pays for and controls the hospital work, and the medical work for the benefit association is incidental to the regular work of the hospital.

Dental and Other Special Treatment

THE recognition, within recent years, of the importance of care of the teeth in the maintenance of good health has been reflected in the extension of dental service among industrial firms. At the time of the previous study only 19 of the firms scheduled employed full-time or part-time dentists, while at the present time 83 of the companies visited furnish such service to the employees. A similar improvement has taken place in regard to provisions for the examination and treatment of the eyes, 32 companies reporting that a full-time or part-time oculist is employed, as compared with 5 companies furnishing such service 10 years ago.

Full dental service including all kinds of fillings, extractions, bridge work, X rays, etc., is furnished in some instances, while in others the work covers only examination and prophylactic treatment, the employees being referred to their own dentist for further care. The work

is done in all cases on company time but in many instances a moderate charge is made covering, usually, only the cost of the materials. In the dental dispensary of one very large company in which all classes of dental work for both employees and their families is done, an average of 3,260 patients a month is treated. Another company which provides for examination and cleaning of the teeth and emergency fillings for the employees treats an average of about 1,300 patients a month, including those who require X rays.

The dental division of a company operating various mines, blast furnaces, and steel mills includes eight dental clinics, in different locations, at which all classes of work are taken. The dental service is extremely popular and the force of 14 dentists finds it impossible to do more than half of the work which comes to it. The work is done at a rate which covers only the actual operating cost of the clinics. One dentist is employed exclusively on school work. He has a traveling outfit which is set up in each school in rotation where he remains until each child has been examined and had the necessary treatment. No charge is made for this service.

In all but a few cases the oculists employed are on a part-time basis and where this service is provided for employees it is usual for the company to arrange for purchase of glasses at a reduced rate.

Among other specialists employed are physicians specializing in diseases of the ear, nose, and throat and in two cases psychiatrists are employed for the adjustment of cases in which the basic trouble is mental. A large rubber company employs a dermatologist for part-time work, because of the occupational hazards present in the industry; and a considerable number of firms have X-ray technicians on their medical staff. Several companies employ a masseur and a number of stores provide the services of a chiropodist owing to the prevalence of foot troubles in this industry caused by the strain of long standing. One company has employed a nutrition specialist for more than four years who works in cooperation with the medical department. This work was introduced primarily to reduce absenteeism, as there were many cases of short absences lasting from one to three days which were the result of digestive disturbances the number of which it was thought could be reduced by correcting the diet. In a period of about four years, more than 800 employees have received advice and help in regard to their dietary habits after being referred to the nutrition expert by the medical department.

Visiting-Nurse Service

IN ABOUT 70 cases the companies employ one or more nurses to do home visiting or one of the emergency hospital nurses puts in part of the time visiting employees who are ill. This visit is made usually within three days, but in some instances the nurse visits the home on the first day of the report of illness. Usually the call by the nurse is made for the purpose of seeing that the employee has proper care, and only such bedside care is given by her as she finds necessary. A number of companies, however, provide free home nursing service, several giving such care after an employee has been with the firm one year. In several of the manufacturing companies and commercial enterprises, the services of the physician are also available to sick employees. In one case the doctor calls once only to see if the

patient is getting proper care, while in another he will call if requested to do so and with the consent of the attending physician. Frequently the company provides the visiting nurse with an automobile. In one case the firm pays the hospital expenses if an employee has to have an operation, while a large taxicab company provides treatment, including nursing and medical care, for both employees and their families.

Treatment of Tuberculosis

ONLY one company visited in the present survey maintains a sanatorium. This was established for the care of employees suffering from tuberculosis, but its facilities have been extended to admit those suffering from other diseases or those needing convalescent care. The treatment at the sanatorium is given only to employees and is free. About 80 per cent of the employees admitted because of tuberculosis have been discharged with the disease arrested or quiescent and have been able to return immediately to their work.

The medical department of another company with a total of nearly 60,000 employees keeps in touch constantly with tuberculosis and other sanatoriums so that the placing of employees requiring special treatment is facilitated. A special visiting nurse visits employees who are receiving sanatorium treatment regularly. In addition to this care the company maintains a home in the country where girls who are recuperating from illness or who are in need of rest are sent. Admissions are in the charge of the medical department. The property consists of 450 acres, on which are two buildings with accommodations for 57 girls.

Seven companies report that they will pay all expenses of employees with a reasonable length of service who contract tuberculosis; 2 report that there is no limit to the amount of help extended, including payment of full salary and other financial assistance; 10 give full salary in many cases; 11 pay part or all expenses, according to the necessities of the case; 6 give financial help and also look after the family when necessary; and 1 company contributes to the upkeep of a sanatorium, so that no fees are charged its employees. In several cases employees and employers contribute jointly to a tuberculosis fund which is used to finance such cases.

Entrance and Periodic Physical Examinations

TWO hundred and twelve of the firms scheduled give more or less complete physical examinations to applicants for employment, 17 examine all male employees, and 18 examine part of the employees, in such cases usually because those examined have to do heavy lifting or extra-hazardous work of various kinds.

The examination varies greatly in completeness with the different companies, ranging from a few general questions only to a thorough physical test. Although physical examinations were much opposed by the workers when they were first introduced, much of this opposition seems to have disappeared with the realization that they are not used as a basis for discrimination and that frequently much benefit is derived from them. Not much information was secured as to the length of time given to the entrance examination. One company

which examines all new employees and also provides for an annual reexamination stated that the examination has been so systematized that a very complete one, including a urinalysis, can be made in from 5 to 7 minutes. The usual time given to each employee ranges from 5 to 15 minutes, although in special cases more time may be taken.

The defects which most frequently cause the rejection of an applicant are hernia, active tuberculosis, various infectious diseases, and heart disease, although of course the qualifications particularly needed in the industry determine the question of acceptance or rejection to a large extent. Many companies divide the applicants into different classes, as for example, those who are physically fit for any job, those who, while having some physical defect, are able to perform certain kinds of work, and those who are totally unfit for employment.

One company having such a classification reexamines all men in the second class at least twice a year to determine if the jobs on which they are working are within the limits of their physical ability, and if the requirements of any particular job are found to be too severe the employment is changed.

The percentage of rejections as the result of the entrance examination is reported by 55 companies to be less than 1 per cent, while 29 report that it is "very small." Fifty-six report that the rejections average from 2 to 5 per cent of those examined, 14, from 6 to 10 per cent, and 31 that it is over 10 per cent. In part of these cases the nature of the industry is such that certain physical conditions entirely disqualify for employment. On the other hand, some companies make a special effort to employ handicapped persons when the particular defect does not make them a menace to themselves or to their fellow employees.

Among the companies giving periodic examinations, 26 reexamine all employees each year. Two companies reported that all the employees are examined every six months, while 14 reexamine at periods varying from 18 months to 3 years, 42 at various intervals because of occupational hazards, 4 in case of transfer, 3 before returning to work in all cases of sickness, 1 examines all men over 40 years every six months, and another all over 48 to 50 years annually, while 20 do not require reexamination but urge employees to be examined at regular intervals. One company allows all employees who have been with the firm two years or more an examination at the Life Extension Institute. During the six-month period that this service had been available, about 1,000 employees had taken advantage of the opportunity. The results of the examination are confidential and no report is made to the company. The average cost of these examinations to the company is \$6.

Follow-up Work as a Result of Physical Examinations

IF THE physical examination on entrance reveals some remediable physical defect or condition, a number of companies follow a consistent policy of providing treatment for such cases, and patients are called back to the hospital regularly for a check-up on their physical condition. This usually includes observation for a certain length of time of employees who have been absent because of sickness. In cases of slight cardiac disease, hernia, infected tonsils, or teeth, and other potentially disabling conditions, employees may be examined at

intervals and frequently the job is carefully selected so that the condition will not be aggravated by the work. One company reports that all new employees are watched the first month to see that they are properly placed from the standpoint of their physical condition and in several instances the nurse goes through the factory regularly and employees who give evidence of needing attention are sent to the hospital for examination, for extra nourishment, or for other treatment.

Constructive health work carried on by one company involves a daily check-up of health conditions in the plant by means of a spot map showing the cases of sickness in the different departments. Tacks of different colors are used for the different contagious diseases and in cases of tonsillitis, grippe, and other acute diseases preventive treatment is given workers closely associated with such cases. The grouping of the tacks in the chart sometimes reveals some specially bad condition as, for example, a large number of cases of headache from one department has shown a lack of attention to ventilation. In the dispensary of this company special treatment is given in case of goiter, hay-fever patients are treated daily, and a special milk formula has been worked out for the undernourished.

The method of this medical department in keeping a daily check on plant conditions has proved its worth, as it visualizes the health situation, is of value in checking the spread of infectious diseases, and, as the accidents were also recorded, it has furnished valuable accident information to the safety committee.

In two establishments employees who desire it are inoculated against colds and quite a large number vaccinate employees and sometimes members of the family as well.

It is the practice in quite a number of industries to give undernourished employees milk twice a day. This is usually done under the supervision of a nurse and changes in the physical condition of such employees are noted. The milk is sometimes furnished free but quite often a small charge is made. One company which has a milk room where about 350 employees who are suffering from malnutrition or the effects of illness are given special raw milk daily, also has a basal metabolism clinic for research work on thyroid and endocrine cases and overweight cases. Particular attention is paid to the examination and treatment of employees who are overweight and the clinic has special equipment for the study of disorders of the gastrointestinal tract.

Conclusion

THREE can be no question that industrial medical service offers an opportunity for really constructive work. If the service rendered is that of mere "finger-wrapping" its usefulness is strictly limited, but if the opportunity is utilized to study conditions which develop among large groups of people closely associated in their daily work or to learn what are the effects of potentially harmful substances, many of which have not yet been fully investigated, the service can result not only in a distinct contribution to the well-being of a particular group but may add also to the sum total of scientific knowledge. Whether or not the possibilities of the service are realized, however, depends both upon the qualifications of the physicians in charge and upon the degree of encouragement given by the employer.

Development of Consumers' Cooperative Enterprises 1920 to 1925

IN 1920 the Bureau of Labor Statistics carried out a statistical investigation of the consumers' cooperative societies in the United States. That year was the peak of a boom period in cooperative effort. Prices had been rising steadily and though wages also rose, they did not keep pace with the cost of living. Consequently, cooperative societies were resorted to as a means of offsetting the lag in earning power. In the latter half of the year, however, prices began to fall, unemployment began to appear as an increasingly serious factor, and industrial conditions became grave.

In order to determine the result of the past five years upon the cooperative movement, the bureau has been carrying on another study similar to the one made in 1920. In the present study, however, credit societies,¹ workers' productive societies, and housing societies have also been covered.²

The consumers' cooperative enterprises have entered a variety of fields. Those reporting to the bureau include retail store societies, wholesale societies, gasoline filling stations, bakeries, laundries, boarding houses, restaurants, water-supply societies, a creamery, a light and power society, a garage, a printing office, and an undertaking establishment.

The data gathered in the present study disclose a heavy death rate among the societies since 1920, particularly among those which had been in operation only a short time when the depression set in. Unfortunately, data are not available to show the death rate among private enterprises in the same period, which may have been as great as that among the cooperative societies.

Those societies which have survived have more than held their own. All consumers' societies combined showed an increase in average membership of 39 per cent, while the grocery societies increased nearly 50 per cent. Average sales per society increased 5.7 per cent. Data are not at hand as to average sales per member in both 1920 and 1925, for all types of consumers' societies. The store societies showed a decrease in average sales per member from \$353 to \$334, or 5.4 per cent. If, however, the 22.6 per cent decrease that has taken place in retail prices during the same period be taken into consideration, it is seen that the above figures represent an actual increase in sales per society of 37 per cent and in sales per member of 22 per cent.

The societies reporting had sales in 1925 aggregating \$49,710,788. Net trading surplus, or "profits," amounted to \$1,608,699, and the amount returned in dividends on purchases aggregated \$753,791. This represents, for the 165 societies which returned these dividends, a rate, figured on sales, of 3.8 per cent, and if figured in terms of share capital, of 29.3 per cent; and this was in addition to the fixed rate of interest paid on capital stock. The share capital aggregated \$6,871,230; and reserves amounted to \$2,435,178. In addition, 204 societies reported surplus and undivided profits of \$1,266,967.

¹Credit societies had previously been covered in a bulletin of this bureau (No. 314) issued in 1922.

²Data for these have already appeared in previous issues of the Labor Review (August, pp. 23-30; September, pp. 1-6; and November, pp. 1-13).

Business Carried On

DATA are at hand from 479 consumers' societies, distributed according to type, as follows:

Retail store societies dealing in—			
General merchandise	324	67. 6	
Groceries	49	10. 2	
Groceries and meats	38	7. 9	
Students' supplies	11	2. 3	
Other commodities	9	1. 9	
Total	<u>431</u>	<u>90. 0</u>	
Wholesale societies	3	. 6	
Gasoline filling stations	10	2. 1	
Bakeries	9	1. 9	
Laundries	2	. 4	
Boarding houses	12	2. 5	
Restaurants	5	1. 0	
Water supply societies	2	. 4	
Miscellaneous societies	5	1. 0	
Grand total	<u>479</u>	<u>100. 0</u>	

The societies, listed above, dealing in "other commodities" include 2 organizations handling coal only, 1 art supplies, 1 dry goods and furniture, 1 men's clothing, and 4 miscellaneous articles. The "miscellaneous" societies include 1 milk-distributing society, 1 garage, 1 light and power society, 1 printing office, and 1 undertaking establishment.

The term "general merchandise" covers a variety of goods, such as groceries, meats, light hardware, shoes, various articles of clothing, etc. The farmers' societies usually handle farm supplies, feed, lumber, and even farm machinery and in Illinois the general cooperative store is likely to carry also miners' supplies and equipment. Several of the general-store societies of Michigan and Wisconsin also deal in forest products.

Considerable versatility in branching out into new lines is shown by the societies studied. Nine societies, in addition to their regular business, also handle coal; one of these sells ice as well, and another also operates a milk route. One store society also deals in gasoline, another in automobile tires, another in oil and tires, and two others in gasoline and oil. One of the gasoline filling stations also carries tires and accessories. A milk station as well as a grocery and meat business is operated by one organization, three others run bakeries in connection with the store, and still another has both a milk station and bakery. One of the Finnish societies supplements its store business with a bakery and restaurant, and another with a milk station, coal yard, restaurant, and bakery. An Italian general-store society also has a pool-room and assembly hall for its members. A northern society which has a general store also does a public dock and shipchandlery business, and one of the older students' societies, in addition to the textbooks, etc., can supply its members with clothing, tailor service, kitchen utensils, and paints. But perhaps the most varied activities are found in a New York society which has four cafeterias, a bakery, food shop, laundry,³ lending library, and credit union; the policy of this society is to add to the services offered rather than to "spread thin" a single service over one new group of members after another.

Five of the societies are buying clubs which have no store but simply pool the orders of their members.

³The laundry has, since the report to the bureau was made, been discontinued.

The cooperative gasoline and oil stations are a very recent development in the cooperative movement.

The cooperative boarding houses represent an interesting phase of the cooperative idea. These are mainly Scandinavian and Finnish societies composed of unmarried men who band together to supply themselves with board and lodging without profit. Many of these organizations also accommodate transients. In some cases the building is owned by the society. Many of these societies are operated at cost, each man paying in advance the amount estimated as needed to cover the week's expenses. The boarding houses reporting have housing accommodations for 312 roomers and serve meals to an average of 1,513 persons per day. The number of persons served varies considerably from season to season. One northern society reports that in the summer when the ore docks in the locality are active the number of boarders runs up to as high as 80 but in the winter the number may fall as low as 10.

The four restaurants which reported on the point average 4,490 meals per day.

A total of 534 establishments is operated by 456 societies and 447 of these societies give employment to 3,409 full-time and 49 part-time workers.

Geographical Distribution

TABLE 1 shows the geographical distribution of the 479 societies making returns:

TABLE 1.—GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF SOCIETIES FURNISHING REPORTS FOR 1925

State	General stores	Other retail store societies	Boarding houses and restaurants	Gasoline filling stations	Bakeries	Other types of societies	Total
Alabama	1						1
Alaska	2						2
Arkansas	3						3
California	3	2					5
Colorado	1						1
Connecticut		6				1	7
Idaho	2	1					3
Illinois	16	8	3			1	28
Indiana	2	2					4
Iowa	13	5		1			19
Kansas	25	2					27
Kentucky	2						2
Maine	1	5					6
Massachusetts	9	17	1		5		32
Michigan	17	8	6				31
Minnesota	99	9	3	8		1	120
Missouri	2	2					4
Montana	2						2
Nebraska	21	2		1		1	25
New Hampshire		2					2
New Jersey		5			1		6
New York	1	6	2		2	1	12
North Carolina	1						1
North Dakota	13	1					14
Ohio	10	6					16
Oklahoma	3	1					4
Oregon		1				1	2
Pennsylvania	9	4			1		14
Rhode Island	2	1					3
South Dakota	10	2					12
Tennessee	2						2
Texas		1					1
Virginia	1						1
Washington	16	3				3	22
West Virginia	5	1					6
Wisconsin	30	3	2			3	38
Wyoming		1					1
Total	324	107	17	10	9	12	479

Years of Operation

THE 423 retail store societies reporting as to age have had an average business life of 10 years and 1 month,⁴ the other types of societies, 6 years and 4 months, and both classes combined had been in operation, on the average, just under 10 years. The number falling within each age group is as follows:

	Retail stores	Other societies
Less than 1 year	1	—
1 year and under 3 years	13	8
3 and under 5 years	22	3
5 and under 10 years	235	27
10 and under 25 years	130	10
25 years and over	22	—
Total	423	48

It is evident from the above that more than four-fifths of the societies have been in business from 5 to 25 years (56 per cent for from 5 to 10 years and 30 per cent for from 10 to 25 years).

Twenty-two store societies, 4.7 per cent of the total, have been in operation more than 25 years; six of these have been in business 25 and under 30 years, eleven, 30 and under 40 years, four, 40 and under 50 years, and one society for half a century. Of these, 13 are general stores, 3 are grocery stores, and 6 are students' societies. There are 1 each in Connecticut, Indiana, New York, Ohio, Rhode Island, and Texas, 2 each in Massachusetts, Michigan, and Wisconsin, and 3 each in California and Kansas, and 4 in Minnesota. Of the three Kansas societies, one has been in operation 32 years, one 49 years, and the third, 50 years.

Membership

THE membership of the 450 societies which reported on this point for 1925 aggregated 139,301, distributed by States as shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2.—MEMBERSHIP OF ALL TYPES OF CONSUMERS' SOCIETIES REPORTING IN 1925

State	Number of members	State	Number of members	State	Number of members
Alabama	150	Massachusetts	21,676	Oregon	3,030
Alaska	309	Michigan	8,873	Pennsylvania	1,498
Arkansas	235	Minnesota	23,889	Rhode Island	264
California	9,044	Missouri	458	South Dakota	1,166
Colorado	160	Montana	195	Tennessee	46
Connecticut	3,176	Nebraska	3,028	Texas	857
Idaho	274	New Hampshire	285	Virginia	215
Illinois	9,559	New Jersey	4,732	Washington	3,551
Indiana	643	New York	6,577	West Virginia	1,049
Iowa	3,051	North Carolina	124	Wisconsin	8,116
Kansas	5,245	North Dakota	1,400	Wyoming	540
Kentucky	461	Ohio	13,494	Total	139,301
Maine	1,204	Oklahoma	727		

⁴ In the 1920 study (see Bul. No. 313), the average age was 4 years and 11 months.

The table below shows the total membership and the average per society of the various types of consumers' organizations:

TABLE 3.—TOTAL AND AVERAGE MEMBERSHIP OF CONSUMERS' COOPERATIVE SOCIETIES IN 1925

Type of society	Number of societies reporting	Membership	
		Total	Average per society
Retail store societies dealing in—			
General merchandise	310	55,431	179
Groceries	47	11,129	237
Groceries and meats	38	21,309	563
Students' supplies	9	30,848	3,428
Other commodities	5	953	191
Total	409	119,760	293
Gasoline filling stations	7	3,615	516
Bakeries	9	4,834	537
Laundries	2	263	132
Boarding houses	11	1,578	143
Restaurants	5	2,733	547
Water-supply societies	2	76	38
Miscellaneous societies	5	6,442	1,288
Grand total	450	139,301	310

The above table shows a somewhat greater average membership than was disclosed by the 1920 study—269 members—but it is open to the objection that it does not cover identical societies for both years. Therefore, in order to test the accuracy of this indication of the growth of consumers' cooperative societies, the 214 societies which furnished membership data in both studies were taken for comparison. These societies showed an increase in membership of 39 per cent from 1920 to 1925. In other words, the cooperative societies which survived the depression period have more than held their own in point of membership. The combined membership of the societies handling general merchandise increased from 29,413 in 1920 to 30,291 in 1925, or 3 per cent, but the membership of all other types of consumers' societies combined increased from 37,983 to 63,394, or 66.9 per cent. The grocery societies alone showed an increase in membership of nearly 50 per cent. The consumers' societies which reported in both years had an average membership per society in 1925 of 438 persons, nearly two-fifths larger than in 1920, when it was 315.

Among the 23 States represented by more than one society, 12 show gains in membership, these ranging from 2.5 per cent in Wisconsin to 296.1 per cent in Ohio. In 10 of these States the cooperative societies gained more than 25 per cent in membership in the six-year period. Losses ranged from 0.9 per cent in Kansas to 33.5 per cent in Illinois and 37.7 per cent in Texas. Labor troubles (especially among the miners and railroad employees) and the resulting unemployment among the members in such States as Illinois and Pennsylvania may have had an influence on the losses shown there.

Volume of Business

TABLE 4 shows, by States, the sales of the consumers' societies in 1925. Not all of the reports cover the calendar year, but variation of period is so slight and presented by such a small proportion of the societies that the figures can be taken as presenting an accurate picture of the 1925 business.

Roughly, the consumers' societies covered represent a purchasing power of nearly \$50,000,000, more than one-fifth of which is in the stores of Minnesota. This State is far in the lead, only one other (Wisconsin) doing as much as one-tenth of the total business.

TABLE 4.—AMOUNT OF SALES OF CONSUMERS' SOCIETIES IN 1925, BY STATES

State	Amount of business	Per cent of total	State	Amount of business	Per cent of total
Alabama	\$72,000	0.1	New Jersey	\$1,063,221	2.1
Alaska	223,037	.4	New York	1,650,626	3.3
Arkansas	121,000	.2	North Carolina	60,900	.1
California	699,604	1.4	North Dakota	1,169,252	2.4
Colorado	75,502	.2	Ohio	1,941,472	3.9
Connecticut	473,401	1.0	Oklahoma	820,737	1.7
Idaho	207,934	.4	Oregon	66,942	.1
Illinois	2,883,864	5.8	Pennsylvania	698,620	1.4
Indiana	305,549	.6	Rhode Island	146,000	.3
Iowa	1,245,849	2.5	South Dakota	759,193	1.5
Kansas	2,021,266	4.1	Tennessee	26,331	.1
Kentucky	116,345	.2	Texas	134,112	.3
Maine	507,324	1.0	Virginia	95,419	.2
Massachusetts	3,710,376	7.5	Washington	2,547,950	5.1
Michigan	3,485,681	7.0	West Virginia	449,081	.9
Minnesota	11,239,067	22.6	Wisconsin	6,653,421	13.4
Missouri	148,175	.3	Wyoming	181,000	.4
Montana	85,155	.2			
Nebraska	3,488,736	7.0	Total	49,710,788	100.0
New Hampshire	136,556	.3			

Six-Year Trend of Cooperative Business

ACH society was requested to report as to its sales for each year from 1920 to 1925, and reports for all six years were received from 204 societies. The data are shown in Table 5:

TABLE 5.—AMOUNT OF BUSINESS OF IDENTICAL CONSUMERS' SOCIETIES EACH YEAR, 1920 TO 1925, BY TYPE OF SOCIETY

Type of society	Societies reporting for all years	Amount of business					
		1920	1921	1922	1923	1924	1925
Retail store societies dealing in—							
General merchandise	135	\$18,022,554	\$14,566,079	\$13,370,295	\$14,357,262	\$14,709,591	\$16,000,343
Groceries	23	1,763,258	1,455,156	1,413,145	1,582,427	1,581,495	1,691,073
Groceries and meats	19	2,040,233	1,793,358	1,813,493	2,140,294	2,440,938	2,702,242
Students' supplies	5	575,982	681,100	755,944	814,370	830,797	819,434
Other commodities	3	288,044	316,188	251,019	300,871	276,374	274,221
Total	185	22,690,071	18,811,881	17,603,896	19,195,224	19,839,195	21,577,313
Wholesale societies	3	3,333,132	1,824,734	1,641,822	1,974,999	2,206,915	2,459,521
Bakeries	5	396,434	394,093	323,983	329,551	340,087	464,993
Laundries	1	16,042	13,990	13,208	15,877	21,063	25,306
Boarding houses	3	145,050	99,380	95,623	117,184	92,490	86,479
Restaurants	3	112,707	96,165	112,298	131,257	225,187	230,296
Water-supply societies	1	589	616	690	798	775	729
Miscellaneous	3	309,710	994,681	1,800,559	3,256,346	3,466,370	3,699,828
Grand total	204	27,003,735	22,235,540	21,592,079	25,021,236	26,192,082	28,544,465

As would be expected, 1920 was a year of very high sales for cooperative societies, as it was also the year of highest prices. That year was followed by a decided drop in 1921 and a still further decline in 1922. Business improved in the following year and still more in 1924, and in 1925 had even exceeded the 1920 mark by 5.1 per cent. In 18 States, also, the sales for 1925 surpassed those of 1920.

The sales have been affected by a number of factors—the rise and fall of prices during the six-year period, the fluctuations in employment in the trades of the members with the consequent effect upon their purchasing power, strikes (especially in cases where the members were largely of one trade, such as miners, railroad men, etc.), and general economic conditions.

Table 6 shows, in terms of average annual amount of business per society and of index numbers thereof, the development of the various types of consumers' societies which reported for the entire six-year period. In 1920, the general stores were doing the largest annual business of all the retail store societies, while among all types, the wholesale societies held the lead. In 1925, however, the wholesales still ranked highest in average sales, but the general stores had been outdistanced by grocery and meat societies and those handling students' supplies. The index numbers show that of all types of consumers' societies the wholesale societies suffered most from the depression, their business falling in 1922 to less than half their 1920 sales. By 1925 the sales of all societies combined had more than overcome the depression, and five of the group had sales in 1925 more than 25 per cent in excess of their 1920 business.

TABLE 6.—TREND OF SALES OF IDENTICAL CONSUMERS' SOCIETIES, 1920 TO 1925, BY TYPE OF SOCIETY

Type of society	Average amount of business per society					
	1920	1921	1922	1923	1924	1925
Retail store societies dealing in—						
General merchandise	\$133, 500	\$107, 897	\$99, 039	\$106, 350	\$108, 960	\$119, 188
Groceries	76, 663	63, 268	61, 441	68, 801	68, 761	73, 525
Groceries and meats	107, 381	94, 387	95, 447	112, 647	128, 470	142, 223
Students' supplies	115, 196	136, 220	151, 189	162, 874	166, 159	163, 887
Other commodities	96, 015	105, 396	83, 673	100, 290	92, 125	91, 407
Total	122, 649	101, 686	95, 156	103, 758	107, 239	116, 634
Wholesale societies	1, 111, 044	608, 245	547, 274	658, 333	735, 638	819, 840
Bakeries	79, 287	78, 819	64, 797	65, 910	68, 017	92, 999
Laundries	16, 042	13, 990	13, 208	15, 877	21, 063	25, 306
Boarding houses	48, 350	33, 127	31, 874	39, 061	30, 830	28, 826
Restaurants	37, 569	32, 055	37, 433	43, 752	75, 062	76, 765
Water-supply societies	589	616	690	798	775	729
Miscellaneous	103, 237	331, 560	600, 186	1, 085, 449	1, 155, 457	1, 233, 276
Grand total	132, 371	108, 998	105, 844	122, 653	128, 393	139, 924
Index numbers						
Retail store societies dealing in—						
General merchandise	100.0	80.8	74.2	79.7	81.6	89.3
Groceries	100.0	82.5	80.1	89.7	89.7	95.9
Groceries and meats	100.0	87.9	88.9	104.9	119.6	132.4
Students' supplies	100.0	118.3	131.2	141.4	144.2	142.3
Other commodities	100.0	109.8	87.1	104.5	95.9	95.2
Total	100.0	82.9	77.6	84.6	87.4	95.1
Wholesale societies	100.0	54.7	49.3	59.3	66.2	73.8
Bakeries	100.0	99.4	81.7	83.1	85.8	117.3
Laundries	100.0	87.2	82.3	99.0	131.3	157.7
Boarding houses	100.0	68.5	65.9	80.8	63.8	59.6
Restaurants	100.0	85.3	99.6	116.5	199.8	204.3
Water-supply societies	100.0	104.6	117.1	135.5	131.6	123.8
Miscellaneous	100.0	321.2	581.4	1, 051.4	1, 119.2	1, 194.6
Grand total	100.0	82.3	80.0	92.7	97.0	105.7

The average sales per member in 1925 of the various types of consumers' society are shown below. In calculating these averages, only those societies which reported as to both membership and sales were used.

Retail store societies dealing in—	Average sales per member
General merchandise	\$528
Groceries	305
Groceries and meats	198
Students' supplies	87
Other commodities	372
Total	334
Gasoline filling stations	195
Bakeries	246
Laundries	144
Restaurants	248
Water-supply societies	21
Miscellaneous	572
Grand total	352

Sales of the retail store societies per member ranged from \$22 in Oregon to \$1,129 in Oklahoma. Five of the States with societies whose average sales exceeded \$100,000 had sales per member averaging more than \$500. Massachusetts, however, with sales averaging \$129,311 per society, sold only \$171 worth of goods to each member, and Texas, with sales per society averaging \$134,112, sold only \$156 worth to each member. The average per member is, of course, influenced by the lines of goods carried by the store. Thus, average sales per member would naturally be smaller in a society doing only a grocery business than in one which supplied its members with dry goods, shoes, coal, and perhaps farm machinery as well.

Although the average sales per member, all stores combined, amounted to only \$334 for the year, individual accounts are noted of sales as high as \$8,000 to one family.

Loyalty of the member to the store, while desirable, can not be compelled. Cooperative effort to be effective must be voluntary. Efforts can, however, be made to stimulate the member's interest and hold his patronage and in some cases lack of support is penalized by withholding the dividend of any member who fails to purchase a certain amount of goods from the store during the year. One society provides, in this connection, as follows:

SECTION 4. When a member does not trade in his own cooperative store and no good reason prevents him from doing so, but supports instead a competing private store with his purchases, the board of directors shall send him a reminder. Should the member, in spite of the reminder, still refuse to make his purchases in his own store, the board of directors shall have the right to suspend his membership privileges, and if this does not remedy matters, the board may expel him from membership in accordance with the provisions of the foregoing section of this article.

Net Trading Profit or Loss

ALTHOUGH a few societies still operate on the cost-plus plan (i. e., they set their selling prices only high enough to cover the cost of the goods plus estimated expense of operation), this practice

seems to be on the decrease, and all but 15 of the societies reporting sell at current prices. Sale at current prices not only avoids arousing the antagonism of private competitors because of the "price cutting" involved in the cost-plus plan, but it obviates the necessity of guessing what the overhead expense will be.

The difference or margin, then, between the cost of goods plus the overhead expense and the selling price, constitutes the ordinary dealer's profit, or the cooperative societies' "saving" (it is not profit in the ordinary sense in the case of the cooperative society but represents what the member lends the society above the cost of his goods).

Unfortunately only incomplete returns are available as to the net trading profit or loss and dividends paid by consumers' societies on the 1925 business. Only 441 societies replied definitely to the question of whether a profit was made on the 1925 business. Of these, 317 had a profit, 87 were able only to make ends meet, 15 operate on the cost-plus plan and so showed no profit, and 22 lost money. The profit for the 71.9 per cent of the societies which had a profit, aggregated more than a million and a half dollars, as shown in Table 7:

TABLE 7.—AMOUNT OF NET TRADING PROFIT OR LOSS ON 1925 BUSINESS, BY TYPE OF SOCIETY

Type of society	Net trading profit			Net trading loss	
	Number of societies reporting	Amount	Average per society	Number of societies reporting	Amount
Retail store societies dealing in—					
General merchandise	219	\$918,630	\$4,195	12	¹ \$19,265
Groceries	30	73,128	2,438	3	² 3,740
Groceries and meats	25	141,949	5,678	1	200
Students' supplies	8	170,732	21,342		
Other commodities	5	10,075	2,015		
Total	287	1,314,514	4,580	16	³ 23,205
Wholesale societies	2	45,503	22,752		
Gasoline filling stations	9	98,892	10,988		
Bakeries	7	18,823	2,689		
Laundries	1	1,079	1,079		
Boarding houses	6	3,026	504	1	572
Restaurants	2	23,976	11,988		
Water-supply societies	1	527	527		
Miscellaneous	2	102,350	51,180	1	2,822
Grand total	317	1,608,699	5,075	18	³ 26,599

¹Not including 3 societies which reported a loss but did not state amount.

²Not including 1 society which reported a loss but did not state amount.

³Not including 4 societies which reported a loss but did not state amount.

Table 8 shows, for the societies reporting, the per cent of net profit (calculated on sales) for each type of consumers' society. It is seen that profits were highest among societies operating gasoline filling stations; these averaged 12.9 per cent of net profit on their 1925 sales. Among the store societies, those selling students' supplies averaged highest—7 per cent.

TABLE 8.—LOW, HIGH, COMMON, AND AVERAGE RATE OF NET PROFIT OF CONSUMERS' SOCIETIES ON 1925 BUSINESS

Type of society	Rate (per cent) of profit			
	Low	High	Common	Average
Retail store societies dealing in—				
General merchandise	0.1	12.6	4-5	4.0
Groceries	.8	15.3	2-3	3.7
Groceries and meats	.7	9.2	1-3	4.3
Students' supplies	2.8	10.0	6-7	7.0
Other commodities	.7	9.7	2-4	3.0
Total	.1	15.3	3-4	4.0
Wholesale societies	1.1	2.4	—	1.9
Gasoline filling stations	1.4	15.4	—	12.9
Bakeries	.1	6.6	2-4	2.3
Laundries	—	—	—	4.3
Boarding houses	.1	11.1	1	3.6
Restaurants	2.0	5.1	—	4.2
Miscellaneous	2.9	13.1	—	2.9
Grand total	.1	15.4	2-3	3.9

¹ Equal numbers of societies had profits of between 1 and 2 and 2 and 3 per cent.² Equal numbers of societies had profits of between 2 and 3 and 3 and 4 per cent.³ One society only.

Patronage Rebates

FROM the trading surplus made by the business a fixed rate of interest is paid on the share capital, after which a certain percentage is usually set aside for a reserve to meet unexpected losses. Depreciation is taken care of by writing off a certain percentage of the value of buildings, furniture, fixtures, etc. Some societies also set aside money for educational work along cooperative lines. Finally, after provision has been made for all the above purposes, the remainder of the profits is returned to the members in proportion to their patronage. The return of purchase dividends proportioned to the amount of the member's business with the society is peculiar to the cooperative movement. This insures that the member who does the most trading at the store shall receive the highest trade rebate, and the member whose business with the store is small shall receive a proportionally small return. In other words, the system was designed to reward the loyalty of the members in the exact degree of their loyalty.

Data are at hand as regards purchase dividends returned for 425 societies. Of these only 172 of 317 which reported a profit on the year's business also returned a dividend. The 15 cost-plus societies should also be regarded as returning purchase dividends, which the member obtained at the time of purchase, in the form of a lower (cost) price.

The statement below shows for 165 societies the amount returned in patronage dividends. Seven others not included in the table reported that they also paid dividends but failed to state the amount so returned.

	Number of societies	Amount
Retail store societies dealing in—		
General merchandise	⁵ 111	\$402, 391
Groceries	⁶ 14	22, 952
Groceries and meats	⁷ 17	94, 251
Students' supplies	10	160, 339
Other commodities	2	3, 793
Total	154	683, 726
Wholesale societies	2	19, 048
Gasoline filling stations	⁸ 5	44, 826
Laundries	1	510
Restaurants	1	4, 955
Water-supply societies	1	400
Miscellaneous	1	326
Grand total	* 165	753, 791

Many of the societies return to nonmembers one-half the rate of patronage dividends paid to the members. In some cases, however, the nonmember's rebate is not paid in cash but is applied on the purchase of a share of stock, so that in time the customer automatically becomes a member and, as such, entitled to the full rate of dividend. One of the most successful societies fixes the rate of nonmember dividend at 2 per cent, irrespective of the rate paid to members. Another returns no dividend to nonmembers; earnings from their patronage are put into a permanent reserve to insure "the safety and extension of the business as a consumers' cooperative." Fourteen societies reported that all the profits for 1925 were applied on deficits of previous years, four societies that all the profits were placed in the reserve or surplus fund (and one of these adds that no dividends will be paid until the surplus equals \$5,000), three societies are applying their profits on the purchase of a building to house the society, seven put all the profits back into the business as share capital, one society uses its profits for various social measures for the benefit of the membership as a whole, and another is doing so this year. It is sound business policy to use part at least of the profits to build up the reserves, and doubtless many of the societies which did not explain the failure to pay dividends were making the same disposition of profits as were the societies which reported definitely on this point. A fourth society, a boarding house, provides that any profits shall go to build up a surplus to the amount of \$1,000; nothing is said as to the disposal of profits after the reserve reaches the amount so set.

Three societies illustrate a policy not so commendable. These societies sustained a loss on the year's business; nevertheless all returned purchase dividends (presumably from reserves) amounting in one case to nearly \$7.50 per member, in the second to about \$10, and in the third to nearly \$9.

Three societies which sell at current prices do not practice the return of patronage rebates. One uses the savings to further the

⁵ Not including 1 society which paid a dividend in stock but did not state amount so paid, 1 which paid a 2½ per cent dividend but did not state amount so paid, and 1 which gives a discount of 10 per cent at time of purchase on cash purchases.

⁶ Not including 1 society which paid a 1 per cent and 1 which paid a 7 per cent dividend but did not state amount so paid.

⁷ Not including 1 society which allows a discount of 3 per cent on all bills paid every 30 days.

⁸ Not including 1 society which allows a discount of 2 cents a gallon on gasoline and 5 cents a gallon on oil.

* Not including 7 societies which returned a dividend but did not state amount so returned.

temperance cause and to enlarge the business; the second uses all surplus not needed in the business to "advance the cause of labor"; and the third provides that "should this society, through its activities, yield any profits, same shall be transferred undivided to the reserve fund, which may only be used for enlarging and improving the enterprise or its aims."

As already seen, more than \$750,000 was returned in patronage dividends on the 1925 sales. What this means to the individual cooperator is shown in Table 9 below. This table gives for the societies which had a profit the average amount of this profit per society, and for those societies which returned purchase dividends, the average dividend per society and per member and the rate (per cent) of dividend on the basis of sales and of share capital. In cooperative practice the dividend is never spoken of in terms of capital, for a fixed rate of interest is paid on capital. It has, however, been considered worth while here to calculate the dividend on the basis of capital as well as of sales, so as to afford a clearer comparison between private enterprises, in which it is customary to figure dividends in terms of stock, and cooperative societies. In reading the table, moreover, it should be remembered that the rate of dividend shown as being returned on capital is in addition to the interest paid on stock, so that if the interest (figures for which are not available) were included the rate would be considerably higher.

TABLE 9.—AVERAGE PATRONAGE DIVIDEND PER SOCIETY AND PER MEMBER AND RATE OF DIVIDEND ON SALES AND ON CAPITAL, BY TYPE OF SOCIETY, 1925

Type of society	Average dividend—		Rate (per cent) of divi- dend on—	
	Per society	Per member		
			Sales	Capital
Retail store societies dealing in—				
General merchandise	\$3,625	\$17.13	3.3	25.7
Groceries	1,639	14.71	2.2	30.9
Groceries and meats	5,544	18.08	4.0	52.8
Miscellaneous commodities	13,678	4.85	5.4	(1)
Total	4,440	10.66	3.7	28.5
Gasoline filling stations	8,965	17.55	9.4	90.6
Laundries ²	510	2.12	2.0	6.0
Boarding houses				
Restaurants	14,955	2.24	1.2	13.9
Water-supply societies	400	8.70	54.9	1.7
Miscellaneous	326	12.54	13.1	5.0
Grand total	4,568	10.62	3.8	29.3

¹ Impossible to compute, as half of the societies are nonstock associations.

² All types except those grouped under miscellaneous commodities.

³ One society only.

Although the dividend returned by cooperative societies averaged only 3.8 per cent on sales, the rebate if calculated on the basis of the stock investment averaged nearly 30 per cent, no mean return. Here again, gasoline filling stations took the lead. The water-supply societies though having a high dividend on sales fell very low in point of capital return, since the price of water sold is very small as compared with the amount invested in the plant.

Some of the societies have fine records as regards the savings they have effected for their members. One such organization, with a capital of \$17,600, has paid back to its members in trade rebates \$20,417. A second, whose members have invested \$39,000 in the business, has returned nearly \$53,000 in patronage dividends. A third with a capital of \$40,000 has returned in interest and dividends \$126,306.

One society composed mainly of farmers has in the eight years it has been in business paid interest (on capital) of \$6,462, patronage dividends of \$26,759, and accumulated a reserve fund of \$5,779. Its paid-in share capital December 31, 1925, amounted to \$20,245. Another successful society—one of the large organizations—has been in business 35 years. During that time it has sold goods to the amount of nearly \$18,000,000, paid interest on stock of nearly \$137,000 and has rebated on purchases a total of \$1,697,528. Its capital stock amounts to \$56,000.

One little store of about 100 members in California has a modest but enviable record. Started in March, 1919, just before the depression began, it has seen its sales increase from \$20,159 to \$81,625. In the seven-year period expenses have risen from 8 to 11.1 per cent of sales (labor costs from 3.4 to 7.5 per cent), but the net profit has also increased, from 3.4 to 4.4 per cent. Every year the society has paid a patronage dividend, these aggregating in the seven years \$14,114. This is a nonstock organization operating with members' certificates amounting to \$2,350 and \$14,955 loan capital. It has no regular reserve, but it has accumulated nearly \$6,000 in undivided profits.

Funds of Consumers' Societies

Share Capital and Reserve

THE capital of cooperative societies is raised through entrance fees, the issue of nonassessable capital stock, and money borrowed from members and others. An entrance fee is charged in many societies to cover the cost of a copy of the rules, organization work, etc., any balance being carried to the reserve fund. This fee is forfeited to the society if the member withdraws. Usually this fee is a nominal sum, the amounts charged in the different societies ranging from 25 cents to \$2. Some few associations studied require an entrance fee of \$10. In these cases, however, the organization is a nonstock one and the fees supply the capital that would otherwise have been secured by the issue of capital stock. Borrowed money is known in the cooperative movement as "loan capital," and may be raised through loans from bodies favorable to the movement (as trade-unions) or from members, sometimes in the form of savings deposits. Loan capital, being generally withdrawable at short notice, is unsatisfactory as a means of carrying on a continuing business. To obviate this difficulty, the cooperative association issues capital stock or "share capital," as it is called. This share capital differs from the capital stock of the ordinary corporation in the following respects: (1) Its ownership carries no voting power, that being inherent in membership. (2) Its value always remains at par, thus removing the element of speculation. (3) Share capital receives a fixed rate of interest and does not participate in dividends. (4)

It may usually be paid for in installments, the certificates being issued to the purchaser when the full amount is paid.

The face value of share capital issued by the societies varies, being determined sometimes by the associations themselves and sometimes by the cooperative law.

Shares are usually withdrawable and transferable under certain conditions. When a member wishes to transfer his stock to another person this transfer must usually have the approval of the board of directors and the transfer must be made on the books of the association, the old certificate being canceled and a new one issued in the name of the purchaser. Many societies require that any such share of stock must be offered to the association first. In case the society can not or does not care to redeem it the transfer may be made as above.

Other funds than share capital are, in the course of time, accumulated by the cooperative society. These may include loan capital, surplus or undivided profits, educational funds, deposits of members, income from investments, buildings, etc.

Table 10 shows the paid-in share capital and reserve of the consumers' societies at the end of 1925, and the averages per society and per member:

TABLE 10.—AVERAGE SHARE CAPITAL AND RESERVE PER SOCIETY AND AVERAGE CAPITAL PER MEMBER, DECEMBER 31, 1925

Type of society	Paid-in share capital			Reserve fund			
	Number of societies reporting	Amount	Average per society	Average per member ¹	Number of societies reporting	Amount	Average per society
Retail store societies dealing in—							
General merchandise	275	\$4,485,758	\$16,312	\$110	180	\$1,356,308	\$7,535
Groceries	346	377,222	8,200	35	29	148,913	5,135
Groceries and meats	31	302,320	9,752	190	19	214,458	11,287
Students' supplies	4	54,005	13,501	4	3	420,062	140,021
Miscellaneous commodities	6	36,229	6,038	27	3	28,449	9,483
Total	362	5,255,534	14,518	63	234	2,168,190	9,266
Wholesale societies	3	371,656	123,885		2	27,502	13,751
Gasoline filling stations	7	79,225	11,318	23	6	21,316	3,553
Bakeries	9	67,919	7,547	15	5	21,843	4,369
Laundries	1	8,540	8,540	35			
Boarding houses	9	24,210	2,600	16	5	7,768	1,554
Restaurants	2	37,296	18,648	16	3	106,106	35,369
Water-supply societies	2	27,850	13,925	366			
Miscellaneous societies	3	999,000	333,000	187	2	82,453	41,227
Grand total	398	6,871,230	17,264	68	257	2,435,178	9,475

¹ On basis of societies reporting both capital and membership.

² Not including 5 nonstock associations.

³ Not including 1 nonstock association.

⁴ Not including 7 nonstock associations.

⁵ Not including 2 nonstock association.

⁶ Not including 16 nonstock associations.

⁷ Not including 21 nonstock associations.

The reserves per society average more than one-half of the amount of share capital—a very favorable situation. The 1920 study disclosed an average capital per society of \$17,056, and per member of \$59, and an average reserve per society of \$5,142. Thus the 1925 figures show a gain on all three points, especially as regards reserves.

Loan capital was reported by 54 societies, aggregating \$299,281. Also, the financial statements of 15 societies showed members' deposits with the societies amounting to \$131,210 and averaging \$8,747 per society reporting such. Of the 204 societies which furnished financial statements, those of only 21 showed a separate fund for educational work. The amounts so noted ranged, in the various societies, from \$6.10 to \$1,464.56; the aggregate totaled \$6,677.21 and the average per society which reported such funds was \$318.

Social Benefits of Cooperative Societies

MOST of the societies reporting are located in places of less than 25,000 people; in some cases the cooperative membership forms a very large percentage of the population. In such places the cooperative society may make its influence felt in a very real way. Many a community has found the "co-op" a real check upon profiteering tendencies of local merchants, and a power in raising the quality of goods sold. It pays "fair" wages to labor, and so tends to raise the level for workers in other stores of the locality. By inaugurating such features as reading rooms, club rooms, lectures, libraries, etc., the cooperative society may exert an influence in developing not only a wider social but higher cultural tone in the community. It also tends to give its members training not only in working for the good of all, but in practical democracy and in business enterprise.

Thus, even when the cooperative society is not a success in the sense of being able to return patronage dividends, it may render a benefit not only to its members but to the community in general.

PRODUCTIVITY OF LABOR

Productivity of Labor in Eleven Industries

THIS article presents a summary of the indexes of the productivity of labor as computed for 11 industries. Productivity indexes for these industries have been published in previous issues of the *Labor Review*.¹ In this issue are published the indexes as revised and extended. In some cases important changes have been made; in others the index is not materially different than as first published.

The basis on which industries have been chosen for these articles is solely that of available statistical data on production and employment. It is comparatively easy to construct an index for an industry with a strictly uniform product such as Portland cement; while thus far all textile industries have been omitted because of the difficulty of getting any data on output which can be used. The industries included here are those for which it is easiest to get the necessary data.

Measurement of Productivity

THE changes in productivity can best be measured by means of index numbers. Theoretically, it might be possible to measure the actual level of productivity in any industry in terms of the output of products per man per hour; for example, statistics might be compiled for cigarette manufacturing, showing that the output per worker (counting in all salaried employees and overhead labor) averaged around 500 cigarettes per hour in 1914 and over 1,000 per hour in 1925. But a method such as this is open to many objections. It could be applied only in the case of industries having a single important product, such as cement, cigarettes, cigars, or sugar; where there is a multiplicity of products (and this includes the majority of industries), it would be impossible to express the output per man-hour in terms of actual products.

Secondly, in view of the well-known limitations of economic data, it is usually possible to measure the percentage of change in economic phenomena much more accurately than it is to measure the phenomena themselves. A definite concrete expression of the actual level of productivity would be misinterpreted, because it would imply an accuracy and definiteness of knowledge which we do not possess. On the other hand, if productivity of labor is expressed in terms of index numbers, then there is no implication at all as to the actual level of productivity; all that the index number purports to show is the relative increase or decrease with reference to some base period. The measurement of productivity by index numbers is thus to be

¹ July, 1926 (pp. 1-19), iron and steel, automobiles, boots and shoes, and paper and pulp; October, 1926 (pp. 10-21), cement manufacturing, leather tanning, flour milling, and cane sugar refining; November, 1926 (pp. 30-40), petroleum refining and slaughtering and meat packing; December, 1926 (pp. 30-40), iron and steel (revised) and rubber tires.

preferred, both on the ground that it does not overstate our knowledge, and also that it is applicable to a much larger number of industries.

Indexes of Production

THE original data on annual production, from which the indexes are constructed, are derived from a variety of sources. Ordinarily, the bulk of the data comes from the Census of Manufactures and the Department of Commerce monthly magazine, Survey of Current Business. Sometimes the Department of Commerce itself gathers original production statistics in certain industries, but for the most part the Survey is a compilation of data furnished by trade associations and private agencies.² Occasionally it has been found advisable to use some other than these two sources. The data on meat production, for instance, were taken from a pamphlet of the Department of Agriculture,³ while the figures for pig iron and steel ingot production were taken directly from the annual reports of the American Iron and Steel Institute.

Indexes of Man-Hours

THE index of man-hours is constructed from (1) the average number of men employed in the industry each year, (2) the average full-time official hours per week, and where possible, (3) the average hours actually worked per week. The average number of men employed is given in the Census of Manufactures for the census years; these figures can be supplemented by the monthly indexes of employment published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, covering the period 1916-1925 for some industries and 1922-1925 for others. The average full-time official hours per week are determined from the census reports on prevailing hours of labor, supplemented by special studies of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Usually, such special studies contain statistics on average hours actually worked by the employees, and the data on this point are incorporated into the index of man-hours whenever possible. In the boot and shoe industry,⁴ for instance, there is a considerable amount of information on actual hours of labor as distinguished from official full-time hours.

On the basis of all these sources the index of employment is combined with an index of hours to form an index of man-hours. It would be foolish to contend that such an index would be accurate to the decimal place. Inadequate statistics on part time in bad years and overtime in prosperous years, the occasional use of interpolation to span the gaps in the data, and the necessarily frequent averaging—all these operate in the direction of inaccuracy. On the other hand, as against these must be listed the comprehensiveness of most of the data and the fairly close correlation of data from two different sources. The man-hours index in most of the 11 industries is not so accurate

²The origin of the statistics of production appearing in the Survey of Current Business is as follows: Automobiles, National Automobile Chamber of Commerce; sugar, Willet and Gray, Statistical Sugar Trade Journal; rubber tires, Rubber Association of America; flour, Russell's Commercial News; paper and pulp, Federal Trade Commission, Newsprint Service Bureau, and the American Paper and Pulp Association; iron and steel, American Iron and Steel Institute; leather tanning, boots, and shoes, Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census; cement, petroleum, Department of Commerce, Bureau of Mines.

³United States. Department of Agriculture. Bureau of Animal Industry. Meat production, consumption, and foreign trade in the United States, 1907-1926, by John Roberts. Washington, 1926.

⁴Bureau of Labor Statistics Bul. Nos. 134, 154, 178, 232, 260, 278, 324, 360, and 374.

as the production index, but the probable error in either case is not large enough to destroy the value of the resulting productivity index.

Index of Productivity

AFTER indexes of production and man-hours have been constructed for an industry, these two are combined to form an index of productivity with 1914 as the base. That is not an ideal year for a productivity base because of the fact that there was a serious depression at that time, but in the case of many industries it is impossible to get data prior to 1914. Even when it is possible to push the indexes back to 1909 or 1904, the uncertainties in the figures and the probable inaccuracies are much too great, in all except one or two industries, to justify using any of these years as a base. The year 1913 would have been a very satisfactory base as far as industrial conditions were concerned, but it was not a census year. Therefore, in the following table the productivity indexes for all industries have been based on 1914, although, wherever possible, indexes have been constructed for 1909, 1904, and 1899. The indexes for these early years, of course, can not be anything more than the most general approximations of the productivity situation, and they must not be considered to be so clearly indicative of actual conditions as those of recent years.

Secondly, it must be emphasized once more that these index numbers give absolutely no indication as to the absolute amount of output per man-hour in each industry; the index is relative only. We can draw the conclusion that the output per man-hour in the iron and steel industry in 1925 was over two and one-half times what it was in 1899, but we do not know how many tons of pig iron were produced per man-hour in either case.

The productivity indexes for 11 industries are given in the table below:

TABLE 1.—INDEXES OF PRODUCTIVITY OF LABOR IN 11 INDUSTRIES
[1914=100]

Year	Iron and steel			Boots and shoes	Leather-tanning	Slaughtering and meat packing	Petroleum-refining	Paper and pulp	Cement-manufacturing	Automobiles	Rubber-tires	Flour-milling	Cane-sugar refining
	Industry as a whole	Blast furnaces	Steel works and rolling mills										
1899	60	44	63	100	93	62							
1904	69	59	71	108	92	57	82	40	94				
1900	100	80	104	100	92	115	117	95	36	93			
1914	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1915	120												
1916	124									120			
1917	109							101		133			
1918	103				98			101		190			
1919	100	96	101	105	101	93	92	104	103	136	130	96	79
1920	115					99		102		150			
1921	94	110	92	115	126	119	111	94	124	193	190	118	82
1922	136				116	130	125	126	118	249			
1923	139	154	137	107	134	128	135	116	132	270	266	128	102
1924	137				107	131	129	163	128	143	262	301	114
1925	159		159	106	126	127	183	134	161	272	311	140	128

¹ This figure is not representative of productivity in the automobile industry in 1918 because of the fact that the Government, for war purposes, placed a restriction on the number of cars which could be produced. In addition, many manufacturers were extensively engaged in executing war orders.

² Estimated. For details, see December, 1926, issue of the Labor Review, pp. 31, 32.

Some detailed explanation of the various indexes is essential to a clear understanding of the meaning and import of the figures, so a brief analysis of the productivity index for each industry will be made in order to emphasize the peculiar conditions affecting the index. For a more complete and detailed exposition of the conditions in each industry, it will be necessary to refer to the previous articles on productivity which have appeared in the Labor Review.

Iron and Steel Industry

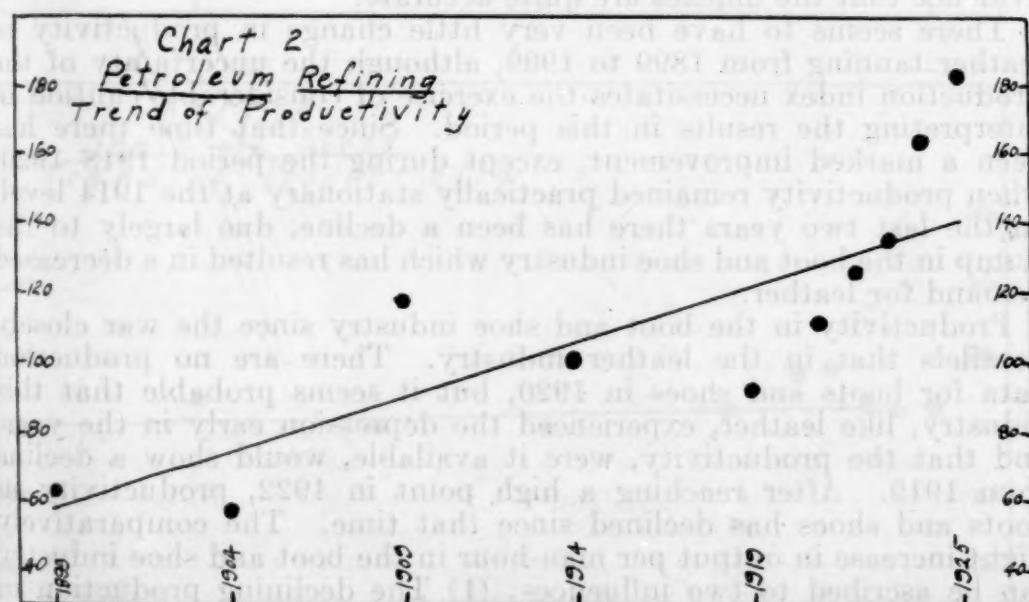
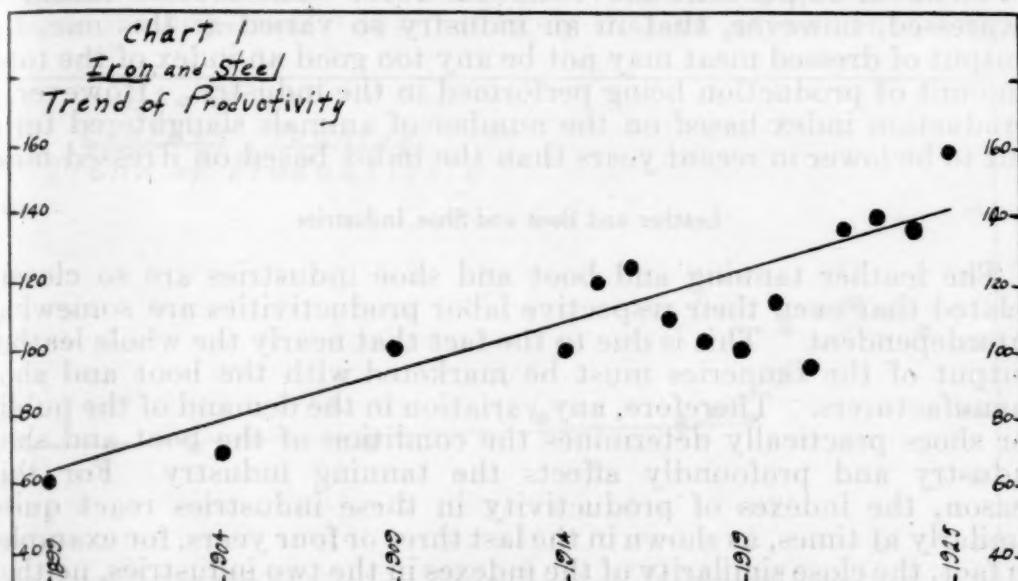
In the iron and steel industry the output per man-hour reflects in a high degree the business situation of each year. There was a rapid increase of productivity from 1899 to 1916, although it is probable that the upward trend was not steady and regular. The indexes for 1909 and 1914 are identical, but the most likely explanation of this is that the depression in 1914 caused a sharp decline in the index from a higher level in 1913. The disorganization of the industry by the war, the strike in 1919, and the depression of 1921 seriously disrupted the labor productivity, and it was not until 1922 that the industry had attained once more the level of 1916. Since then the increase has continued, and it seems probable that the productivity has been materially advanced by the shorter hours of labor introduced into the industry in 1923. The year 1924 was one of mild depression, so the full effects of the shorter day did not make themselves felt until 1925.

It has also proven possible to construct separate productivity indexes for two branches of the industry. The productivity of labor in each branch seems to be quite independent of that in the other, a fact which can probably be explained by the fact that the blast furnace index is not so sensitive to depression conditions as the steel works and rolling mills index. That is, in blast-furnace operation the employment index in time of depression falls even more rapidly than the production index, so that the resulting output per man-hour remains high; but in the case of steel works and rolling mills the employment does not fall so rapidly as production when a recession takes place, and therefore the productivity index is likely to take a big drop. This can be clearly seen in the indexes for 1921, and it would be equally evident for 1914 if the situation at that time were not partially obscured by the use of 1914 as a base. There has been a larger increase in productivity in blast furnaces for the whole period, which is probably attributable to the fact that blast furnaces involve a single operation, while steel works and rolling mills carry on a multitude of operations. The latter branch, for instance, has employed from 6 to 12 times as many men during the period under consideration, and consequently the labor productivity would be less likely to increase as rapidly as in blast furnaces.

Petroleum Refining

The productivity index for petroleum refining has been completely revised since the article in the November Labor Review. The most important change has been the shifting of the production index from a total-products base to that of crude oil consumption. This was done in order to keep the index in line with the practice in

the industry itself. The crude consumption index turns out to be higher than indicated in the previous article because the figures as given in the Survey of Current Business were brought into line with the census figures. It can practically be taken for granted that this index of labor productivity is not high enough to express the actual



situation in the industry, for no method has been found of taking into account the effect on productivity of the extra gasoline production due to the cracking process.⁵

Slaughtering and Meat Packing

In slaughtering and meat packing, productivity was at a high level in 1909, but declined to a definitely lower level, if the evidence

⁵ Labor Review, November, 1926, pp. 35-37, Tables 3 and 4 and discussion.

of the years 1914 and 1919 is at all indicative as to what was happening in that 10-year period. Since the depression of 1920-21, the productivity has been considerably improved, although it remained practically stationary for the last three years, as in the leather and boot and shoe industries. At present the level of productivity seems to be about 10 per cent above that for 1909. The caution should be expressed, however, that in an industry so varied as this one, the output of dressed meat may not be any too good an index of the total amount of production being performed in the industry. However, a production index based on the number of animals slaughtered turns out to be lower in recent years than the index based on dressed meat

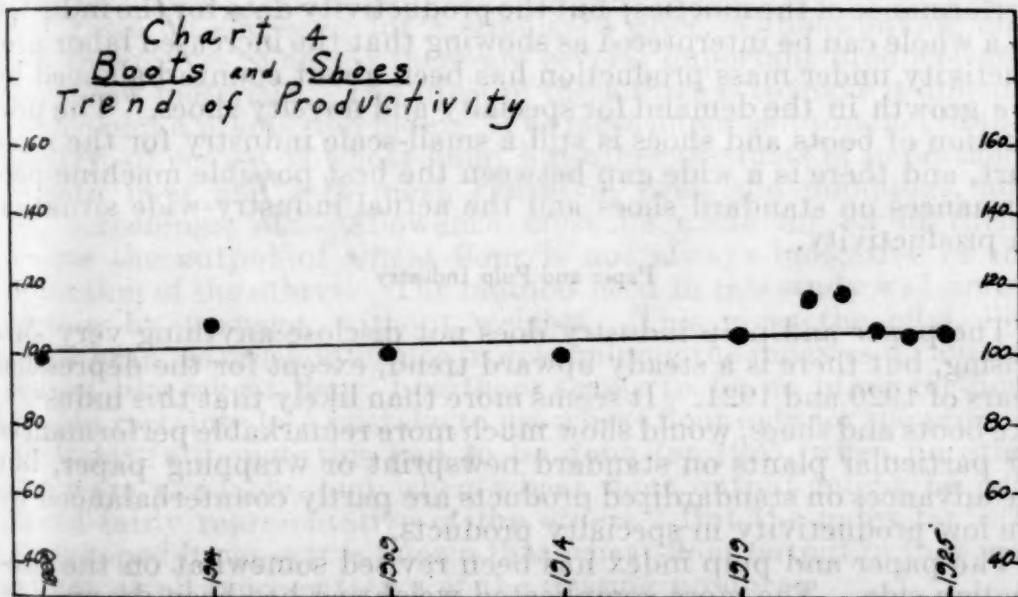
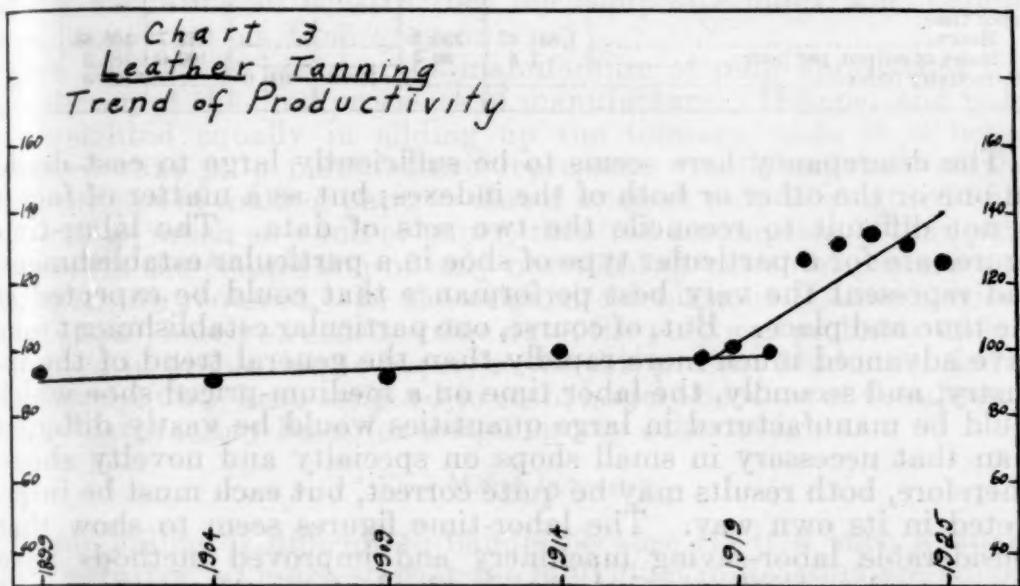
Leather and Boot and Shoe Industries

The leather tanning and boot and shoe industries are so closely related that even their respective labor productivities are somewhat interdependent. This is due to the fact that nearly the whole leather output of the tanneries must be marketed with the boot and shoe manufacturers. Therefore, any variation in the demand of the public for shoes practically determines the condition of the boot and shoe industry and profoundly affects the tanning industry. For this reason, the indexes of productivity in these industries react quite similarly at times, as shown in the last three or four years, for example. In fact, the close similarity of the indexes in the two industries, neither of which has been prosperous in the last few years, is in itself good evidence that the indexes are quite accurate.

There seems to have been very little change in productivity in leather tanning from 1899 to 1909, although the uncertainty of the production index necessitates the exercise of considerable caution in interpreting the results in this period. Since that time there has been a marked improvement, except during the period 1918-1920, when productivity remained practically stationary at the 1914 level. In the last two years there has been a decline, due largely to the slump in the boot and shoe industry which has resulted in a decreased demand for leather.

Productivity in the boot and shoe industry since the war closely parallels that in the leather industry. There are no production data for boots and shoes in 1920, but it seems probable that this industry, like leather, experienced the depression early in the year, and that the productivity, were it available, would show a decline from 1919. After reaching a high point in 1922, productivity in boots and shoes has declined since that time. The comparatively slight increase in output per man-hour in the boot and shoe industry can be ascribed to two influences: (1) The declining production in recent years because of poor demand, and (2) the rapid development in the demand for odd styles and specially made shoes which has prevented any advance at all in mass production. In addition to these factors within the industry itself, there is another which must not be overlooked. Up to and including the year 1921, the statistics on production of boots and shoes were gathered by the Census Bureau at the regular census periods, but, beginning with 1922 the figures have been compiled from monthly reports of over 1,000 firms in the industry, representing practically complete production. However, the data from such monthly reports, while complete enough for all

practical purposes, are almost certain not to be comparable to the data gathered in the biennial census of manufactures, because the latter covers even the smallest firms. In many industries it has been possible to adjust such monthly figures upward to bring them into line with the census figures, but this can not be done in the case of boots and shoes because the two sets do not overlap and so there is no basis of comparison. It is not likely that an adjustment of this



kind would make more than a few points' difference in the productivity indexes for 1922-1925.

The results obtained in this study of productivity stand in rather strong contrast with some other data on productivity in the boot and shoe industry published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. These are the data on the labor time involved in manufacturing 100 pairs of shoes by the hand methods of 1863, and the machine methods of

1895, 1916, and 1923.⁶ The two sets of index numbers are compared in the following table:

TABLE 2.—COMPARISON OF PRODUCTIVITY INDEX WITH THE LABOR TIME OF MANUFACTURING 100 PAIRS OF SHOES

Index	1863	1895	1899	1914	1916	1923	1925
Labor time:							
Hours	1,831.67	236.1			142.7	106.86	
Index of output per hour	7.8	60.4			100.0	133.5	
Productivity index			100.0	100.0		107.0	106.0

The discrepancy here seems to be sufficiently large to cast doubt on one or the other or both of the indexes; but as a matter of fact it is not difficult to reconcile the two sets of data. The labor-time figures are for a particular type of shoe in a particular establishment, and represent the very best performance that could be expected at the time and place. But, of course, one particular establishment may have advanced much more rapidly than the general trend of the industry, and secondly, the labor time on a medium-priced shoe which could be manufactured in large quantities would be vastly different than that necessary in small shops on specialty and novelty shoes. Therefore, both results may be quite correct, but each must be interpreted in its own way. The labor-time figures seem to show that considerable labor-saving machinery and improved methods have been introduced into the industry in the last quarter century, and that the best practice of 1925 should be more than double the best performance of the nineties; but the productivity data for the industry as a whole can be interpreted as showing that the increased labor productivity under mass production has been about counterbalanced by the growth in the demand for specialty and novelty shoes. The production of boots and shoes is still a small-scale industry for the most part, and there is a wide gap between the best possible machine performances on standard shoes and the actual industry-wide situation on productivity.

Paper and Pulp Industry

The paper and pulp industry does not disclose anything very surprising, but there is a steady upward trend, except for the depression years of 1920 and 1921. It seems more than likely that this industry, like boots and shoes, would show much more remarkable performances for particular plants on standard newsprint or wrapping paper, but the advances on standardized products are partly counterbalanced by the low productivity in specialty products.

The paper and pulp index has been revised somewhat on the production side. The more complicated weighting has been dropped in favor of the simple method of weighting paper and pulp equally in deriving the composite production index. The problem of weighting is of some importance because of the fact that since the war there has been considerable divergence in the two separate production indexes, the output of paper having steadily increased in proportion to the output of pulp. The explanation is that the imports of manufac-

⁶ Bureau of Labor Statistics Bul. No. 360: Time and labor cost of manufacturing 100 pairs of shoes, 1924.

tured pulp from Canada have increased tremendously since the war, as is shown by the following figures: 1919—mechanical, 200,000 tons, chemical, 435,000 tons; 1925—mechanical, 330,000 tons, chemical, 1,340,000 tons. In the latter year about one-third of the total chemical pulp used in the United States was imported. Since the pulp production in the United States will probably continue to diverge more and more from the production of paper, the necessity for more careful weighting in constructing the composite index will become more important as time goes on.

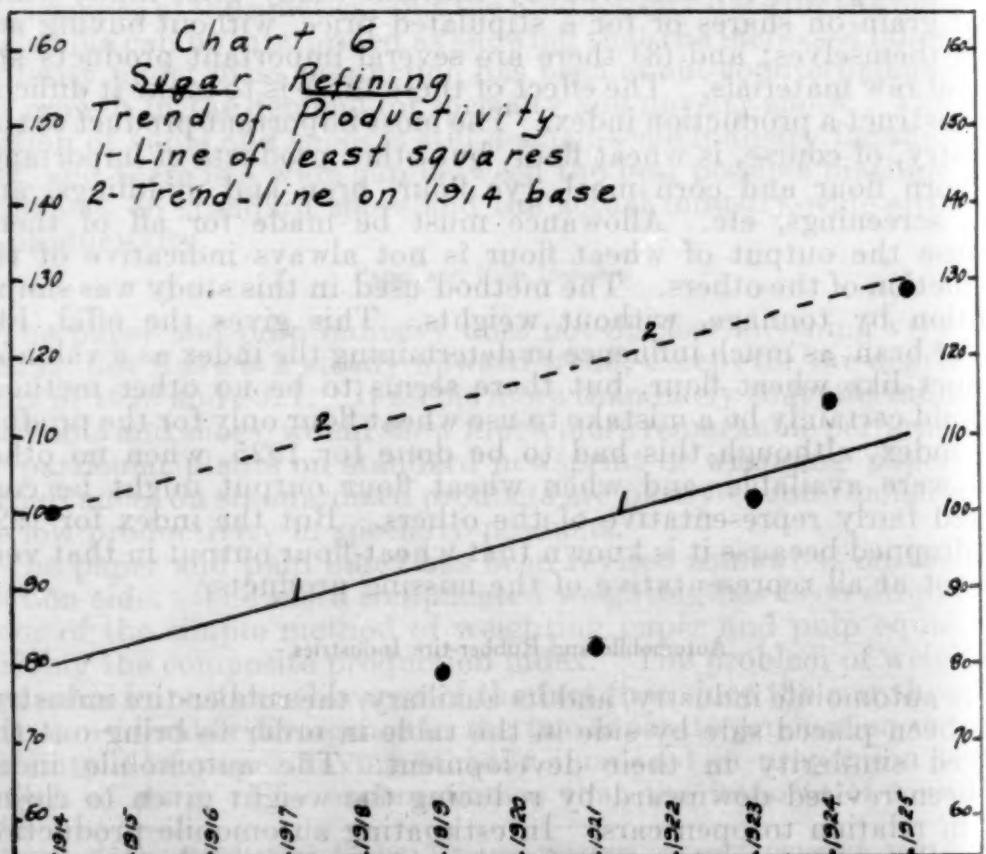
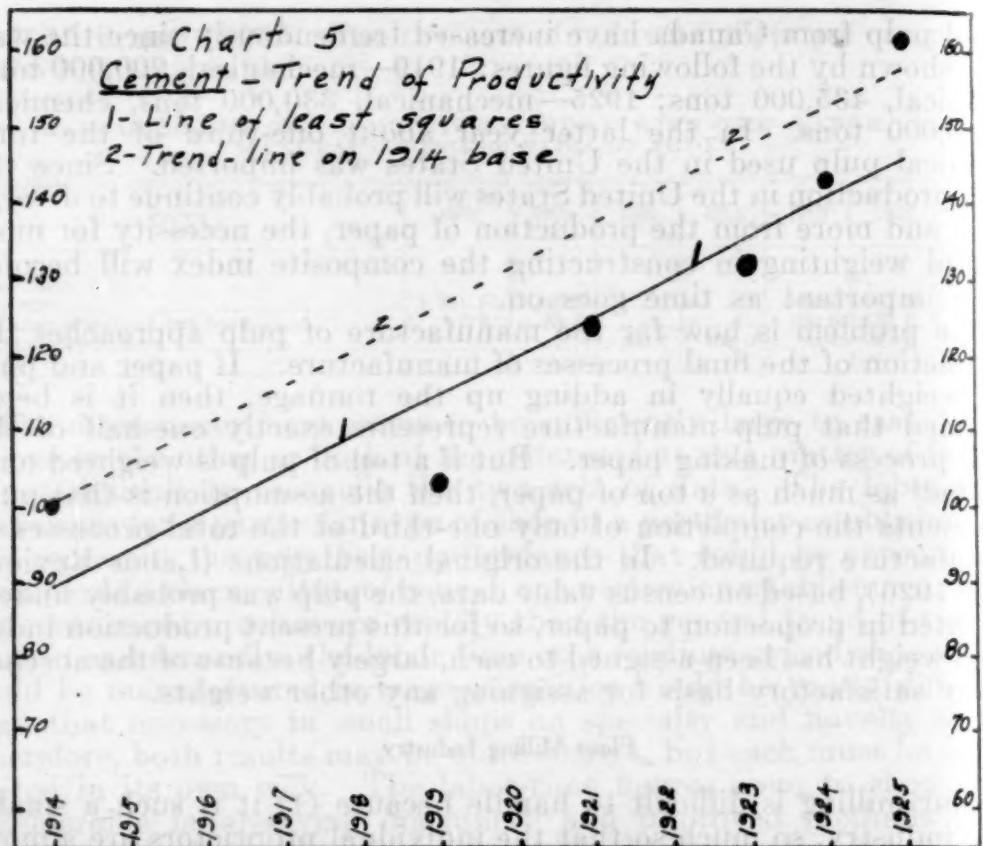
The problem is how far the manufacture of pulp approaches the completion of the final processes of manufacture. If paper and pulp are weighted equally in adding up the tonnage, then it is being assumed that pulp manufacture represents exactly one-half of the total process of making paper. But if a ton of pulp is weighted only one-half as much as a ton of paper, then the assumption is that pulp represents the completion of only one-third of the total processes of manufacture required. In the original calculations (*Labor Review*, July, 1926), based on census value data, the pulp was probably underweighted in proportion to paper, so for this present production index equal weight has been assigned to each, largely because of the absence of any satisfactory basis for assigning any other weights.

Flour Milling Industry

Flour milling is difficult to handle because (1) it is such a small-scale industry, so much so that the individual proprietors are almost as numerous as the salaried employees, and the large corporation is the exception; (2) the industry contains many grist mills, which grind grain on shares or for a stipulated price, without buying any grain themselves; and (3) there are several important products and several raw materials. The effect of these three is to make it difficult to construct a production index. The most important product of this industry, of course, is wheat flour, but other products of importance are corn flour and corn meal, rye flour, bran and middlings, and feed, screenings, etc. Allowance must be made for all of them, because the output of wheat flour is not always indicative of the production of the others. The method used in this study was simple addition by tonnage, without weights. This gives the offal, like feed or bran, as much influence in determining the index as a valuable product like wheat flour, but there seems to be no other method; it would certainly be a mistake to use wheat flour only for the production index, although this had to be done for 1925, when no other data were available, and when wheat flour output might be considered fairly representative of the others. But the index for 1924 was dropped because it is known that wheat-flour output in that year was not at all representative of the missing products.

Automobile and Rubber-tire Industries

The automobile industry, and its auxiliary, the rubber-tire industry, have been placed side by side in the table in order to bring out the marked similarity in their development. The automobile index has been revised downward by reducing the weight given to closed cars in relation to open cars. In estimating automobile production some allowance must be made for closed cars and trucks, in view of



the fact that in general the more expensive cars are practically always closed, and that the closed car ordinarily represents considerably more labor and effort than the open car. The closed car is a superior product, and as such it should be weighted. However, it was felt that the original system of weights operated too heavily in favor of the closed car, so a revision has been made. Thus, the final production figures for automobiles represent "equivalent open cars," and is somewhat higher than simple total of cars and trucks, regardless of their type.

The rubber-tire industry shows a most remarkable advance in productivity since 1914, an advance which is apparently still going on at a rapid rate. As in the case of automobiles, the great increase can be attributed largely to the fact that these are new industries which have experienced a tremendous expansion of production in the last 10 years. The output of rubber tires in 1925 was nearly seven times the output in 1914, and the output of "equivalent open cars" in the automobile industry was nine times as great.

Sugar-refining Industry

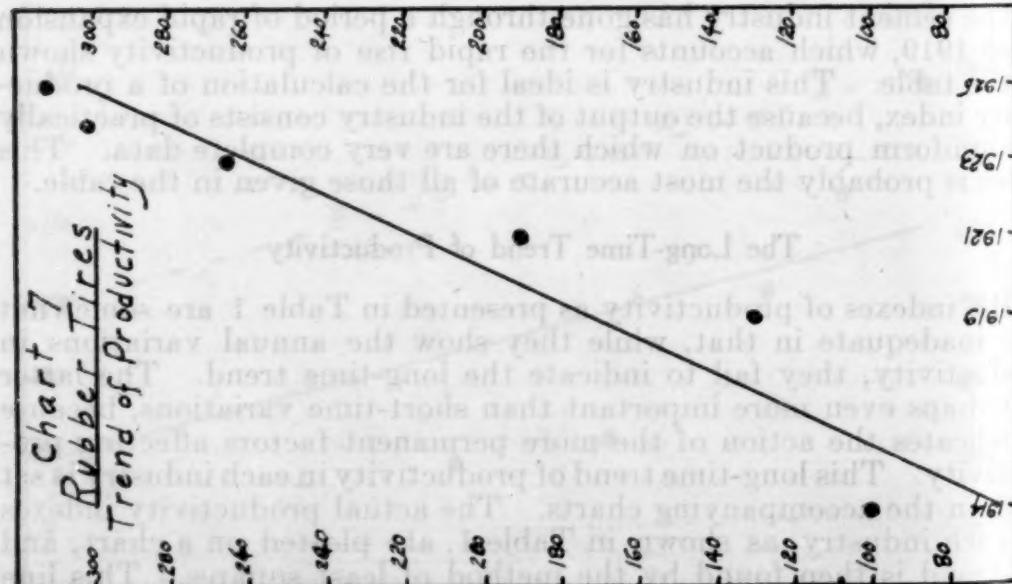
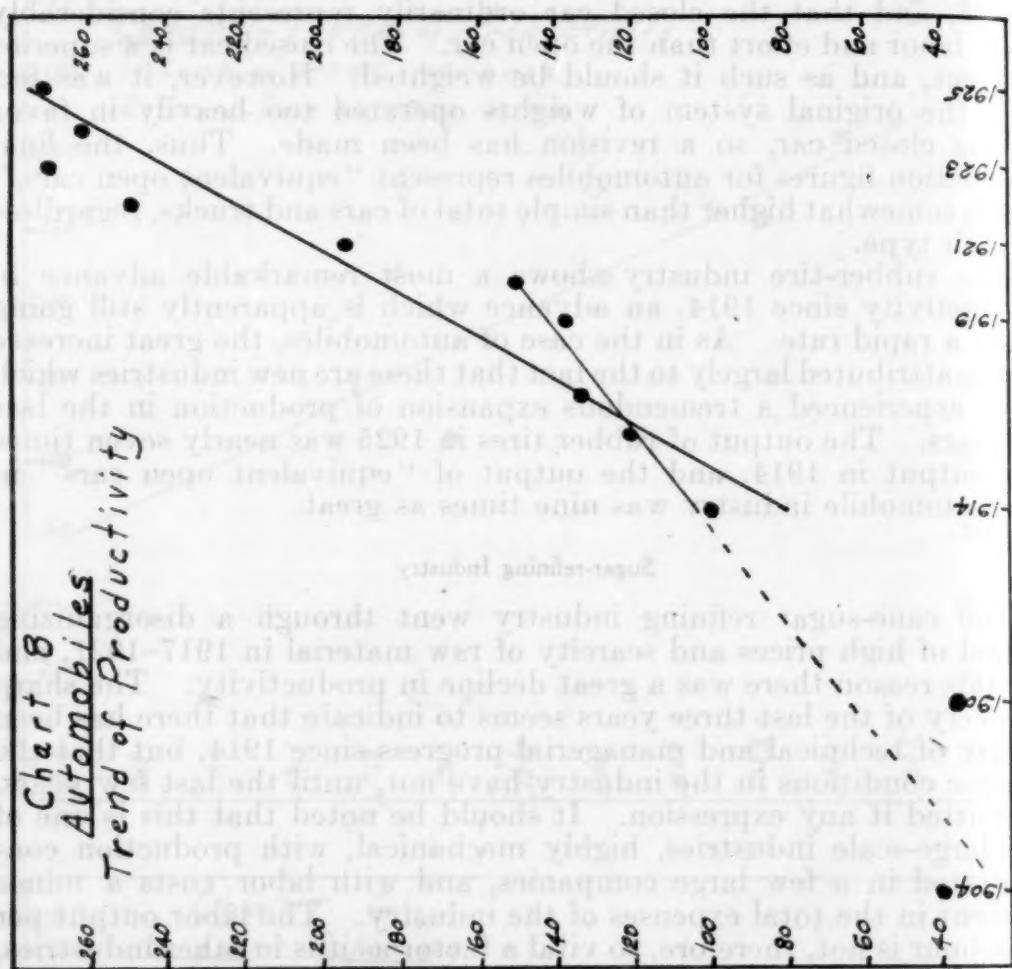
The cane-sugar refining industry went through a disorganizing period of high prices and scarcity of raw material in 1917-1921, and for this reason there was a great decline in productivity. The sharp recovery of the last three years seems to indicate that there has been plenty of technical and managerial progress since 1914, but that the chaotic conditions in the industry have not, until the last few years, permitted it any expression. It should be noted that this is one of the large-scale industries, highly mechanical, with production concentrated in a few large companies, and with labor costs a minor element in the total expenses of the industry. The labor output per man-hour is not, therefore, so vital a factor as it is in other industries, such as iron and steel, automobiles, and boots and shoes.

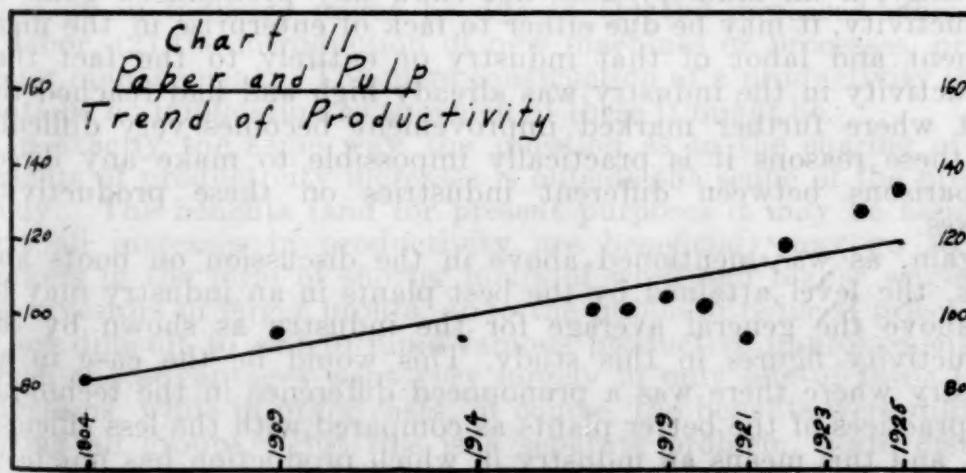
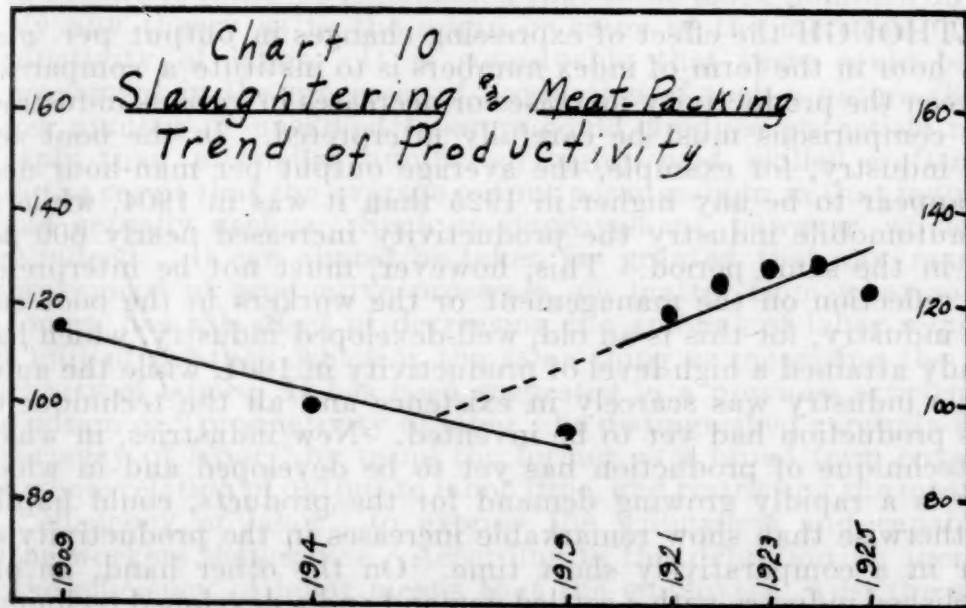
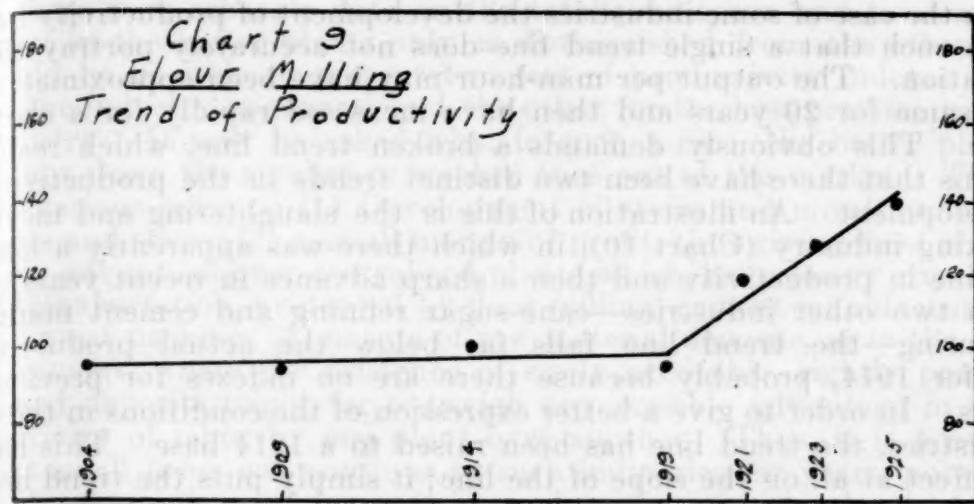
Cement Industry

The cement industry has gone through a period of rapid expansion since 1919, which accounts for the rapid rise of productivity shown in the table. This industry is ideal for the calculation of a productivity index, because the output of the industry consists of practically one uniform product on which there are very complete data. This index is probably the most accurate of all those given in the table.

The Long-Time Trend of Productivity

THE indexes of productivity as presented in Table 1 are somewhat inadequate in that, while they show the annual variations in productivity, they fail to indicate the long-time trend. The latter is perhaps even more important than short-time variations, because it indicates the action of the more permanent factors affecting productivity. This long-time trend of productivity in each industry is set forth in the accompanying charts. The actual productivity indexes for each industry, as shown in Table 1, are plotted on a chart, and the trend is then found by the method of least squares. This line should indicate, in a very rough way, the long-time permanent increase in productivity for the whole period.





In the case of some industries the development of productivity has been such that a single trend line does not accurately portray the situation. The output per man-hour may have been approximately the same for 20 years and then have increased rapidly for a short time. This obviously demands a broken trend line, which really means that there have been two distinct trends in the productivity development. An illustration of this is the slaughtering and meat-packing industry (Chart 10), in which there was apparently a long decline in productivity and then a sharp advance in recent years.

In two other industries—cane-sugar refining and cement manufacturing—the trend line falls far below the actual productivity for 1914, probably because there are no indexes for previous years. In order to give a better expression of the conditions in those industries, the trend line has been raised to a 1914 base. This has no effect at all on the slope of the line; it simply puts the trend line on a higher level.

Conclusion

ALTHOUGH the effect of expressing changes in output per man-hour in the form of index numbers is to institute a comparison between the productivity increases or decreases in various industries, such comparisons must be carefully interpreted. In the boot and shoe industry, for example, the average output per man-hour does not appear to be any higher in 1925 than it was in 1904, while in the automobile industry the productivity increased nearly 600 per cent in the same period. This, however, must not be interpreted as a reflection on the management or the workers in the boot and shoe industry, for this is an old, well-developed industry, which had already attained a high level of productivity in 1904, while the automobile industry was scarcely in existence and all the technique of mass production had yet to be invented. New industries, in which the technique of production has yet to be developed and in which there is a rapidly growing demand for the products, could hardly do otherwise than show remarkable increases in the productivity of labor in a comparatively short time. On the other hand, an old established industry with a settled demand and a developed technique could not very well achieve any such increase in productivity. Consequently, if an industry does not show any pronounced gains in productivity, it may be due either to lack of enterprise in the management and labor of that industry or entirely to the fact that productivity in the industry was already high and had reached the point where further marked improvement becomes very difficult. For these reasons it is practically impossible to make any direct comparisons between different industries on these productivity indexes.

Again, as was mentioned above in the discussion on boots and shoes, the level attained by the best plants in an industry may be far above the general average for the industry as shown by the productivity figures in this study. This would be the case in an industry where there was a pronounced difference in the technique and practices of the better plants as compared with the less efficient ones, and this means an industry in which production has not been concentrated in the hands of comparatively few large companies.

If there were separate data on the total production and total man-hours in the better plants only as distinguished from the others, it would be possible to present two sets of productivity indexes, one for the industry in general and the other for the best practice in the industry. It may be asked why, in such a case, the better plants do not drive the smaller or weaker ones out of the market. There are various reasons: (1) Development of styles and novelties, as in boots and shoes; (2) a small margin of profit, thus giving local plants a big advantage over centralized plants which have heavy expenses of transportation, evidenced by flour milling, cement manufacturing, and meat packing; (3) nature of raw material deposits, as in the case of cement, where the existence of easily accessible, rightly proportioned deposits might far outweigh any possible advantage in productivity of labor by one plant over another. Thus, it is possible that small firms will continue in such industries for years, not able to develop any great increase in productivity or reduction in costs, but nevertheless able to maintain their position in the industry.

In closing it must be emphasized that these index numbers do not imply any theory as to the origin or cause of the increases in the productivity of labor. It is conceivable that there could be an improvement in the processes of production of such a nature that a larger number of unskilled laborers could produce an article more cheaply than a smaller number of highly paid, skilled craftsmen, with the result that the average output per man-hour in that industry would actually decline. Such an improvement, however, would be rare indeed. It can almost be taken for granted that any marked improvement in productive processes, no matter from what source it comes, has the effect of decreasing the amount of labor required per unit of product, which is the same thing as increasing the productivity of labor. It has been suggested in a previous article that the notion of "productivity of labor" be distinguished carefully from "efficiency of labor" by using the former as a broad term covering the whole relation of output to labor time, and restricting the meaning of "efficiency of labor" to express the willingness and capability of the workers themselves. According to this definition an increase in the efficiency of labor means that the employees, with the same machinery and processes, are working harder or more skillfully, so that the output per man is greater. The increased productivity of labor in an industry might be due to (1) the increased efficiency of labor, (2) the introduction of new machines or processes, or (3) better management. The mere construction of a productivity index contains no implication as to which of these it might be.

In exactly the same way the question as to the sharing of the benefits of productivity increases is outside the scope of the present study. The benefits (and for present purposes it may be assumed that all increases in productivity are beneficial) may go to the workers in the form of shorter hours of work and higher wages, to the investors in larger profits, or to the public in reduced prices. It is not difficult to call to mind famous productive improvements in which the advantages went very largely in only one of these three directions, while in other cases, of course, the benefits were diffused among all groups. But this is a separate problem, quite distinct from that of measuring the increases of productivity by means of index numbers.

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS AND LABOR CONDITIONS

Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor for 1926

THE Secretary of Labor, in his Annual Report for 1926, reviews in brief the work of the various bureaus and agencies of his department for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1926, outlines various programs of the different administrative units, and makes recommendations regarding the improvement and expansion of these governmental services in the interest of labor and industry.

Certain of these activities and recommendations are summarized below:

Conciliation Service

THE work of the division of conciliation for 1925-26 as compared with the previous year is shown in the following statement:

Number of cases—	1925	1926
Adjusted.....	392	377
Unable to adjust.....	64	61
Pending.....	42	43
Unclassified.....	61	70
 Total.....	 559	 551

Cases pending at end of last fiscal year and now adjusted, 35.
Total number of adjustments, 412.

The Secretary of Labor hopes that as the work of the service becomes better known "more and more employers and more and more employees will, through committees of their own selection or with the aid of our commissioners, make use of its method and its sound central idea." In 1925-26 the cases handled directly affected more than 308,000 workmen.

United States Employment Service

AT THE time of the preparation of his report, the Secretary found the country on a "satisfactory employment basis."

The iron and steel industries are on an 80 to 85 per cent basis; the automotive industry is employing practically full forces; and a general improvement is registered in the metal and machinery industries, with overtime employment in some parts of the country. A greater volume of employment is noted in metaliferous mining in the metal-mining States of the West. The rubber industry is on a peak-employment basis. Considerable unemployment is noted in the textile and shoe industries, and bituminous-coal mining, while full employment exists in the anthracite fields. Viewing the country as a whole, building-construction craftsmen are on a satisfactory employment basis. Increased employment in the various industries is reflected in the opportunities registered at the cooperative public employment offices of the country.

In 1925-26 State and municipal employment offices in cooperation with the United States Employment Service placed 1,791,381

persons, as compared with 2,727,763 registrations and 2,091,539 workers applied for.

In the calendar year 1925 the farm-labor division of the United States Employment Service found employment for 392,750 laborers. The record of the junior division for the fiscal year 1925-26 was 24,734 placements as compared with 53,021 registrations.

United States Housing Corporation

DURING the year under review the United States Housing Corporation collected \$3,505,986 from the sources listed below:

Disposal of property	\$1,667,881
Repayment of loans	803,816
Interest on loans	512,983
Operation of properties	21,636
Government hotels	499,670

Expenditures in this connection, except for the Government hotels, totaled \$92,198. The net expenditure for the Government hotels, including ground rent of \$37,157 for the first six months of the year, was \$457,206.

Bureau of Labor Statistics

IN THE 12-month period covered by the report the Bureau of Labor Statistics published the Monthly Labor Review and issued 23 bulletins on the subjects indicated below:

- The use of cost of living figures in wage adjustments. (Bul. No. 369.)
- Labor laws of the United States, with decisions of courts relating thereto. (Bul. No. 370.)
- Wages and hours of labor in the slaughtering and meat-packing industry, 1923. (Bul. No. 373.)
- The cost of American almshouses. (Bul. No. 386.)
- Union scale of wages and hours of labor, May 15, 1924. (Bul. No. 388.)
- Proceedings of the eleventh annual convention of the Association of Governmental Labor Officials of the United States and Canada. (Bul. No. 389.)
- Wholesale prices, 1890 to 1924. (Bul. No. 390.)
- Decisions of courts affecting labor, 1923-24. (Bul. No. 391.)
- Survey of hygienic conditions in the printing trades. (Bul. No. 392.)
- Trade agreements, 1923 and 1924. (Bul. No. 393.)
- Wages and hours of labor in metalliferous mines, 1924. (Bul. No. 394.)
- Index to proceedings of International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions. (Bul. No. 395.)
- Retail prices, 1890 to 1924. (Bul. No. 396.)
- Building permits in the principal cities of the United States in 1924. (Bul. No. 397.)
- Growth of legal aid work in the United States. (Bul. No. 398.)
- Labor relations in the lace and lace-curtain industries in the United States. (Bul. No. 399.)
- Proceedings of the twelfth annual meeting of the International Association of Public Employment Services. (Bul. No. 400.)
- Family allowances in foreign countries. (Bul. No. 401.)
- Collective bargaining by actors. (Bul. No. 402.)
- Union scale of wages and hours of labor, May 15, 1925. (Bul. No. 404.)
- Phosphorus necrosis in the manufacture of fireworks and in the preparation of phosphorus. (Bul. No. 405.)
- Safety code for paper and pulp mills. (Bul. No. 410.)
- Proceedings of the twelfth annual convention of the Association of Governmental Labor Officials of the United States and Canada. (Bul. No. 411.)

At the close of the yearly period the following bulletins were in press at the Government Printing Office:

- Labor legislation of 1925. (Bul. No. 403.)
- Proceedings of the twelfth annual meeting of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions. (Bul. No. 406.)
- Wages and hours, and labor cost of production in the paper box-board industry, 1925. (Bul. No. 407.)
- Labor laws relating to payment of wages. (Bul. No. 408.)
- Unemployment in Columbus, Ohio, 1921 to 1925. (Bul. No. 409.)
- Wages, hours, and productivity in the pottery industry, 1925. (Bul. No. 412.)
- Wages and hours of labor in the lumber industry in the United States, 1925. (Bul. No. 413.)
- Proceedings of the thirteenth annual meeting of the International Association of Public Employment Services. (Bul. No. 414.)
- Wholesale prices, 1890 to 1925. (Bul. No. 415.)
- Hours and earnings in anthracite and bituminous coal mining, 1922 and 1924. (Bul. No. 416.)
- Decisions of courts and opinions affecting labor, 1925. (Bul. No. 417.)
- Retail prices, 1890 to 1925. (Bul. No. 418.)
- Trade agreements, 1925. (Bul. No. 419.)
- Handbook of American trade-unions. (Bul. No. 420.)
- Wages and hours of labor in the slaughtering and meat-packing industry, 1925. (Bul. No. 421.)
- Wages and hours of labor in foundries and machine shops, 1925. (Bul. No. 422.)
- Workmen's compensation legislation in the United States and Canada. (Bul. No. 423.)
- Building permits in the principal cities of the United States, 1925. (Bul. No. 424.)
- Record of industrial accidents in the United States to 1924. (Bul. No. 425.)
- Deaths from lead poisoning. (Bul. No. 426.)
- Health survey of the printing trades. (Bul. No. 427.)

A report on outdoor recreation and welfare work for industrial employees, including approximately 500 firms, was in course of preparation, also studies of labor productivity in the glass, printing, and binding industries. Indexes of productivity in various other industries were being prepared.

Surveys of wages and hours in the following industries were either already begun or planned: Automobile manufacture, iron and steel, cotton goods manufacturing, woolen goods manufacturing, men's clothing, boots and shoes, hosiery and underwear, anthracite and bituminous coal mining, and lumber manufacturing.

During the same fiscal year the bureau was also at work on various regular annual bulletins and also on a revision of Bulletin 313, Consumers' cooperative societies in the United States, 1920, which will bring the data up to the end of 1925. Safety codes were being prepared under the direction of the American Engineering Standards Committee.

On July 14-16, 1926, an industrial accident prevention conference was held in Washington, D. C., under the auspices of the United States Department of Labor for the purpose of formulating a program by which uniform and comparable accident statistics could be collected on a national scale.¹

Recommendations.—The creation of an industrial accident division in the bureau, as proposed in S. 3983 and H. R. 12263, Sixty-ninth Congress; the making of a survey of labor turnover; the broadening of the bureau's work in connection with the gathering of strike data, and investigations of apprenticeship, family budgets, Hawaiian labor conditions, and food-canning industries.

¹ See *Labor Review*, Washington, D. C., August, 1926, p. 41.

Bureau of Immigration

DURING the fiscal year ending June 30, 1926, 304,488 immigrants were admitted to the United States as compared to 294,314 in the preceding year. The administration of the immigration laws for that year is reported as the most satisfactory since the adoption of restrictive measures under the quota law of 1921. The 12-month period closing June 30, 1926, was the second year since the quota law of 1924 became effective.

On June 30, 1926, the system of detailing competent immigration and public health inspectors abroad had been in operation almost a year. In certain countries this scheme has been tried "long enough to prove to the satisfaction of all concerned that the movement for examinations abroad was well conceived and worked out."

The organization of the immigration border control has been completed and if necessary can absorb promptly additional employees in order to prevent illegal immigration. Such addition to the staff can be made without materially adding to the number of directive officers or increasing overhead charges.

Recommendations.—Various provisions to mitigate certain hardships arising from restrictive immigration measures; provision for the importation (within the quota) of skilled or unskilled labor, "upon special immigration certificates issued at the direction of the Secretary of Labor, after full and ample hearing and investigation into the conditions under which it is sought to bring labor into the United States"; and the authorizing of the President of the United States "to suspend immigration in whole or in part for a time, in the manner, and to the extent necessary whenever the Secretary of Commerce and the Secretary of Labor shall jointly certify that in their opinion unemployment in this country makes such suspension necessary."

Referring to his reiterated proposal for the enrollment of aliens, the Secretary of Labor explains that the suggested measure is not one for police registration and regulation but should take the place of the declaration of intention or so-called first papers. He is willing that the enrollment be voluntary and is of the opinion that such procedure will save immigrants considerable expense as compared to the present method of proving residence by furnishing witnesses.

In the interest of efficient administration there should be a properly indexed code of all immigration and naturalization legislation.

Children's Bureau

THE 43 States and the Territory of Hawaii cooperating with the bureau under the infancy and maternity act held 1,945 combined prenatal and child health conferences, 2,686 prenatal conferences, and 15,524 child health conferences.

The amounts accepted by the States from the appropriation under the act for the fiscal year 1926 aggregated \$857,797.

In the last fiscal year the bureau issued 27 new and revised publications. Twenty others were in press, and 31 in course of preparation. A list of some of the new publications is given below:

Child hygiene.—Child management (revised); Standards for physicians conducting conferences in child-health centers; Posture standards (six charts); The

health of the child is the power of the nation (two posters); Sunlight for babies (leaflet).

Child labor.—References on child labor and minors in industry, 1916-1924; Vocational guidance and junior placement, 12 cities in the United States, prepared by the industrial division of the Children's Bureau and the junior division of the United States Employment Service; Child labor in fruit and hop-growing districts of the Northern Pacific Coast; Industrial accidents to employed minors in Wisconsin, Massachusetts, and New Jersey; Child labor in representative tobacco-growing areas.

Delinquency and dependency.—Foster-home care for dependent children (revised); Laws relating to sex offenses against children; Adoption laws in the United States, a summary of the development of adoption legislation and significant features of adoption statutes, with the text of selecting laws; Children indentured by the Wisconsin State Public School; Juvenile-court statistics, a tentative plan for uniform reporting of statistics of delinquency, dependency, and neglect.

Maternity and infant hygiene.—The promotion of the welfare and hygiene of maternity and infancy—The administration of the act of Congress of November 23, 1921, fiscal year ended June 30, 1924; Standards of prenatal care, an outline for the use of physicians; Folder No. 4, What builds babies? The mother's diet in the pregnant and nursing periods.

Recommendations.—An extension of the five-year appropriation authorized by the maternity and infancy act; the creation of a division for the scientific study of juvenile delinquency, with a staff of psychologists, psychiatrists, and social investigators; and the passage of the juvenile court law proposed by the District of Columbia Commission on Public Welfare Legislation.

Naturalization Bureau

DURING the year covered by the report 277,539 declarations of intention of citizenship were made, 172,232 petitions for naturalization filed, and 146,331 certificates issued.

The act of June 8, 1926, enlarged the administrative participation of representatives of the United States Bureau of Naturalization in naturalization proceedings. The results of the legislation "have greatly exceeded the most optimistic expectations." The United States district courts congested with naturalization cases are being freed from hearing the testimony of petitioners and their witnesses, State courts will be incidentally relieved of considerable naturalization work, and petitioners and witnesses will be saved much time. Through the elimination of naturalization proceedings in many of the State courts, "greater uniformity of interpretation and construction of the naturalization law and procedure will logically follow."

Recommendations.—Under the law the petitioner is the only one who receives a certificate of naturalization. Minor foreign-born children in the United States at the time of naturalization and the alien wife who previous to the passage of the act of September 22, 1922, became a citizen through her husband's naturalization are given no individual documentary evidence of their status. They should be provided with this evidence.

The Secretary also emphasizes the need for more clearly defined legislation on the naturalization status of widows and minor children of deceased declarants, on the educational requirements, and the requirements of "good moral principles" and on "attachment to the principles of the Constitution of the United States," and on continuous residence in the United States.

Women's Bureau

THE activities of the Women's Bureau included an important industrial conference; surveys of women's employment conditions; special studies of problems which directly concern wage-earning women; the beginning of an extensive investigation of the effects of special legislation on the employment of women; research work; and educational work involving the preparation and distribution of special information, popular and technical articles and exhibit material; and the preparation of exhibits for the Sesquicentennial Exposition.

The bulletins issued or prepared during the year 1925-26 are listed below:

Bulletins published.—Women in the fruit growing and canning industries in the State of Washington; Women in Oklahoma industries; Women workers and family support; Effects of applied research upon the employment opportunities of American women; Women in Illinois industries.

Bulletins in press.—Lost time and labor turnover in cotton mills; The status of women in the Government Service in 1925; Changing jobs; Women in Mississippi industries.

Bulletins in preparation.—Women in Tennessee industries; Women in Delaware industries; Minimum wage laws; Industrial accidents among women; Trend of employment among women; Foreign-born women in industry; Women in industry in Flint, Mich.; Wages of women in 13 States.

Recommendations.—Definite first-hand current information concerning married woman workers should be secured. Investigations should also be made of the piecework system, posture at work, industrial poisons, and other causes of fatigue as related to woman workers, occupational opportunities and vocational training for women, lost time and labor turnover in various industries.

The need was stressed for a service for the collection of annual wage data for different industries in various sections of the United States.

Partnership in Industry

IN THE concluding section of his report the Secretary declared that—

The problems of the future in America are more and more certain to be not political, but industrial and economic problems. * * * Every effort of American industry should be bent toward maintaining this condition of harmony and good will between worker and employer which so largely accounts for our present prosperity. * * * To the perpetuation of that spirit of partnership in industry the Department of Labor should be always and whole-heartedly committed.

Employee Stock Ownership in Twenty Important Companies

A REPORT on stock ownership by employees in 20 important companies having such plans has been issued by the industrial relations section of Princeton University under date of December 1, 1926. The details are shown in the table reproduced below. From this table, it appears that the employees in these companies now own, or will own as soon as payments on subscriptions are completed, shares in their employing companies equal to approximately

4.26 per cent in market value of the total shares of these companies now outstanding.

The number of the present and prospective employee stockholders in these companies equals approximately 20.9 per cent of the number of the present stockholders.

The market value of the average holding or subscription of employees in these companies is about \$1,244.

The figures used as a basis for the compilation were obtained direct from company officers. The companies shown include but a small proportion of the many companies with formal plans for employee-stock purchase. Further, thousands of companies have no plans for employee subscription. Thus, according to the report, the results of the compilation must be considered rather as showing the consuming power of employees in large companies actively fostering employee ownership of stock than as indicating the whole situation as to the employee-stock-ownership movement.

As employees now paying on stock subscriptions become stockholders, the total number of stockholders will be increased and in many cases more stock will be issued. Therefore, the per cent of employee holders and of employee holdings at that time will be somewhat less than the ratios given above.

STOCK HELD BY EMPLOYEES, BY COMPANIES

Company	Number of employee owners and subscribers	Per cent present and prospective employee-stock-holders form of all stockholders	Market value of employee holdings and subscriptions	Per cent employee holdings form of market value of stock outstanding
The American Sugar Refining Co.	1,000	4.18	\$978,537	1.12
American Telephone & Telegraph Co. (Bell System) ¹	57,000	14.49	86,000,000	5.60
Bethlehem Steel Co. (Inc.)	35,000	62.71	11,829,896	6.56
Henry L. Doherty & Co.	9,000	8.49	8,950,000	3.09
Eastman Kodak Co.	15,000	57.64	20,517,000	8.44
Illinois Central System	1,256	5.33	1,164,715	.61
International Harvester Co. (Inc.)	12,000	54.54	15,240,000	7.16
The Lehigh Coal & Navigation Co.	276	4.60	244,440	.39
Lehigh Valley Railroad Co.	2,127	22.38	912,000	.88
National Biscuit Co.	3,084	19.64	7,259,868	3.35
New York Central Lines	20,463	46.88	8,364,370	1.64
Pennsylvania Railroad System	19,500	13.91	5,348,504	.95
The Philadelphia Electric Co.	1,035	4.20	1,848,600	1.16
The Procter & Gamble Co.	4,326	55.88	23,069,210	11.61
The Pure Oil Co.	1,081	3.15	2,334,575	2.35
Radio Corporation of America	443	1.26	210,000	.24
Standard Oil Co. of California	11,854	20.55	28,494,109	3.83
Standard Oil Co. (Indiana)	17,416	34.98	24,443,055	4.12
Standard Oil Co. (New Jersey)	19,135	43.70	36,288,000	4.18
Swift & Co.	13,000	27.65	20,000,000	11.39
Total	243,906	20.93	303,496,879	4.26

¹ More recent subscriptions by employees of the Bell System have amounted to 692,000 shares, which are being purchased by 180,000 employees, many of whom are already included, however, in the 57,000 who are now owners of stock.

² As given in the report, items add to 243,996.

British Recommendation of More Complete Industrial Statistics

CONSIDERABLE attention has been attracted in England recently by a report¹ advising greater publicity concerning the facts of industry, issued by a voluntary committee which has been devoting itself to a study of the question. The committee, of which Lord Astor is chairman, included Professor Bowley, three chairmen of large industrial undertakings, three labor officials, a lawyer, a chartered accountant, the editor of the *London Economist*, and the warden of Toynbee Hall, thus representing business, labor, the professional and statistical side of business, and the public interests.

The thesis of the report is that the economic condition of Great Britain is at present unsatisfactory, that to bring it back to a healthful state various measures will doubtless be necessary, and that one measure which offers a prospect of immediate improvement is to give greater publicity to the facts concerning business in general and, in some cases, particular businesses. The committee considers that this will be especially helpful in lessening labor troubles and in diminishing the fluctuations of the business cycle.

As to industrial relations, the committee points out that a leading cause of trouble is dissatisfaction with the division of proceeds among the working partners. There is a suspicion that the workers sometimes do not get a fair deal, and that at other times, owing to their ignorance of the real condition of the business, they make impossible demands.

This suspicion can only be allayed by the fullest information, by which we mean not merely facts produced in time of emergency, but a regular watch upon the progress of production and the distribution of the proceeds. We are not optimistic enough to think that the disclosing of information alone will create industrial peace, but we are satisfied that industrial peace can not be attained without it.

The authors describe at some length the arrangements existing in a few British industries for acquainting the workers with the real state of the business, how far these arrangements are adequate, and what has been their effect in promoting industrial harmony. In a number of instances the collection of complete and reliable statistical information has proved most useful in industrial negotiations, especially when wage questions are concerned, but in only a few industries is any systematic effort made to collect and make continuous use of such information. It is urged, as a necessary and practicable minimum, that information on the following points should be collected and published for each industry:

- (a) Total production, estimated both in quantities and in money values (selling prices).
- (b) Cost of material.
- (c) Cost of labor, divided, where the conditions of the industry lend themselves to the distinction into (1) Direct, that is, wages which can be booked to individual contracts; (2) indirect, that is, wages which can not be so booked.
- (d) General charges, for example, rents, rates, and taxes (other than income tax), insurance, depreciation, general office expenses, maintenance and renewal of buildings and plant, and fixed salaries.

¹ *The facts of industry—the case for publicity.* London, Macmillan & Co. (Ltd.), 1926.

(e) Balance available for interest on loan capital, dividends and profits, and for allocation to reserve.

(f) Number of wage earners, male and female, adult and juvenile, with indications sufficient to show their ages and the rate of wages paid.

A good deal of space is devoted to a consideration of how, without unduly disclosing the affairs of an individual business, data on these points for a given industry can be made sufficiently informative to enable the workers to see really what relation their wages bear to the general situation of the business. Most business heads would be willing to give the information required, under proper assurances of secrecy, but since a few recalcitrants could make the whole scheme useless, it is suggested that the Government should give the plan a compulsory basis, and that the Board of Trade might be given control of its working.

The second part of the report is devoted to the manner in which the ups and downs of the business cycle might be moderated, if not altogether abolished, could the movements be clearly measured and analyzed. At present, the resources for doing this are quite inadequate. The practice of the United States in this respect is taken as an example of what should be done, and the recommendations for publicity made by the committee are based upon the kind of reports issued by the Department of Commerce, the Federal Reserve Board, various trade associations, the Harvard Bureau of Business Research, and certain private statistical organizations. It is suggested that the kind of information needed might be covered by carefully worked out index figures.

The third part deals with the need of more complete and reliable information as to the state of individual businesses as a guide for the investor, who at present may easily be misled by the published reports.

Foreign Labor in French Agriculture¹

SOME very interesting data concerning foreign labor in French agriculture were presented at the Congress of Agriculturists and Peasants of the Central and Western Districts of France, which was held at Dijon, September 25, 1926. According to a report by a member of the Superior Council of Agriculture and of the National Council of Labor, prior to the World War immigration into France was very slight and for the most part seasonal. After the war, however, because of the shortage of population large numbers of foreign laborers were required.

Official reports² show that in the six years ending December 31, 1925, about 1,180,000 foreign workers have been introduced into France, about 428,000 of them for agriculture. Within the same period more than 287,000 immigrants have been repatriated. More or less serious problems have resulted from these experiments in the utilization of so many foreigners of whom quite a considerable proportion has come from remote countries. These difficulties arose chiefly from "the inexperience of French agriculturists, and also

¹ International Labor Office. *Monthly Record of Migration*, Geneva, November, 1926, pp. 427-429.
² France. *Bulletin du Ministère du Travail et de l'Hygiène*, Paris, July-September, 1926, p. 267.

from the inadequacies of French legislation." Sometimes, in fact, the breaches of contract between foreign agricultural laborers and their French employers included a substantial percentage of the total number of laborers introduced. Investigation shows that these difficulties may be roughly classified as follows:

	Per cent of disputes
Disputes concerning wage rates-----	25
Late or irregular payment of wages-----	3. 5
Disputes arising from conditions of labor (for example, Sunday work, extension of daily work, etc.)-----	18
Complaints concerning housing conditions-----	11
Contracts broken on account of workers not being of the quality required-----	7
Illness of the worker-----	3. 25
Complaints concerning food-----	1
Withholding of identity papers by the employer-----	. 50
Breach of agreement due to the worker being diverted to another employer during the journey-----	1

Although, with experience, the obstacles involved in the employment of foreign labor are gradually tending to diminish, many serious difficulties remain. One outstanding cause of broken contracts is the dissatisfaction with the rates of pay. While the wages of agricultural workers in France have risen from 300 to 600 per cent since the war, the franc has greatly depreciated, and many French agricultural employers offer foreign workers the lowest rates paid in the class of work they are doing and are unwilling to raise wages because of the expenses incurred in importing their labor. Housing conditions in certain sections of France are behind those in other countries and are responsible for broken agreements. Other difficulties mentioned are excessive hours of work and Sunday work.

The view was expressed that immigration to France will continue for some years yet:

Foreign labor will probably reach its maximum between 1928 and 1932, at which time the generation born between 1915 and 1919, the numbers of which were considerably restricted by the World War, will have to supply the necessary labor.

A resolution was passed by the Congress, which demanded among other things, that the different agricultural associations should carry on propaganda activities among their members for the purpose of making known their experience as to the best methods of utilizing and stabilizing foreign labor, and that instructions be given immediately to the proper officials with reference to the enforcement of the act of August 11, 1926, providing "for the protection of the labor market."

Report of Committee of Canadian House of Commons on Minimum Wage for Men

THE question of a minimum wage for employees generally was before the Select Standing Committee on Industrial and International Relations of the Canadian House of Commons by reference thereto of the following resolution of the House, March 17, 1926: "That in the opinion of this house a wage sufficient to provide for a reasonable standard of living should constitute a legal minimum

wage." In its report¹ the committee refers to the adoption of the peace treaties at the close of the World War, which contain a declaration that "if we are going to have peace in the world it must be based on social justice, and there must be a world-wide acceptance of reasonable living and working conditions"; concluding that, since this principle had already been accepted in accepting the treaty, the principle of the minimum wage had been, in effect, accepted as well.

It was said that the principle as applied to women "was working out most satisfactorily," and that there was no reason why its scope should not be extended to men—"at least to some classes of men's wages, as a provision that the proper type of law should first be passed and then that the proper type of administration of this law should be applied." The basic principle was said to be "an assertion of the preciousness, or if you prefer, sacredness of human life—the right of the worker to live from his work." It was not recommended that a law be enacted for fixing wages generally, or for a general rise of wages, but only "as a device for protecting the low-paid workman, for protecting the subsistence level." The enactment of the necessary legislation will necessarily rest with the Provinces rather than the Canadian Parliament.

The report is largely taken up with discussions of various standards of wages, studies of cost-of-living budgets, and similar matter. A recommendation is made that a conference of Dominion and provincial representatives meet in the near future to consider methods of securing the desired compliance with the terms of the treaty of peace.

¹ Canada. House of Commons. Select Standing Committee on Industrial and International Relations: Minutes of Proceedings and Evidence, Session 1926. Ottawa, 1926. x, 122 pp.

INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS AND HYGIENE

The Acid Test of Progress in Accident Prevention¹

By ETHELBERT STEWART, UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER OF LABOR STATISTICS

THE acid test of accident-prevention work is a very simple one to apply. The acid test is: Does the prevention work prevent accidents?

Data upon which the acid test can be applied, however, are not so easily secured or so simple in their preparation as is the application of the acid. Whether or not your work is reducing accidents can be answered only by an application of statistical methods to all the elements in your problem. And by statistical method I do not mean simply figures. Compilations of figures do not constitute statistics.

Let us examine the three points of view which three different sets of men will have when discussing the question of accident prevention, accident decrease and accident increase:

1. *The cost accountant.*—How much do accident compensation premiums and other expenses connected with the injuries to the employees in a plant cost per unit of output of that plant? The cost accountant wants this so that once incorporated into the cost of production it is automatically added into the price. From this point of view there might be an increase in production per man per hour or day which without any increase in wages would show a decrease in accident costs even though the real fact of accidents had not changed a particle. There might be even an increase in accidents but if that increase did not equal the increase in efficiency the cost accountant's figures would still show a decrease.

2. *The insurance carrier.*—The insurance carrier wants to know the relation of the cost of accidents to the total volume of pay roll. His interest in the number of accidents or the severity of accidents is purely incidental, and they concern him only as they are reflected in the relation of premium to pay roll. Let us take two plants—one having a low wage and therefore a small pay roll in proportion to the number of people employed, another having a high wage and hence few people in proportion to the volume of pay roll—and let the number and severity and cost of accidents be the same in both, and the insurance man will tell you that the hazard is greater in the plant having low wages than in the plant having high wages, which simply means that his premium rate, based upon the volume of the pay roll, is higher. Let a plant suddenly increase its wages, and hence its volume of pay roll, without any increase in the number of employees, and without any change in accidents. From the insurance man's point of view accidents have decreased in this plant because the insurance cost as related to the volume of pay roll has been lowered.

¹ Paper read before the Second Annual Industrial Safety Conference of Indiana held at Indianapolis, Ind., Dec. 7-9, 1926.

There is no thought here of criticism. When the workmen's compensation laws were first passed, the first question and the urgent thing of the moment was for the insurance carriers to know what premium rate to charge to cover this new legislation. Next it became important for the manufacturing establishment to know how much this would increase its cost of production. Both of these things were urgent, and had to be handled immediately.

3. *The safety man.*—This man wants to reduce lost time. He wants to save legs and arms and backs and lives. He is not primarily interested either in how the accidents and compensation affect the cost of production, nor in the insurance premium based on volume of pay roll. Not that he does not recognize these things nor is not in entire sympathy with the preceding points of view from an economic standpoint. But his primary interest is in men and women, industrial workers, in human beings and human sufferings. Now, what he wants to know is how many men are hurt or killed in proportion to the number of men and women employed and the length of time they are exposed to the danger of accidents each day. In other words, he is interested in accidents per se and when he talks of accident prevention he means preventing accidents in terms of people hurt—not in terms of premium cost or production cost, but in terms of men and women. To him rates of wages mean nothing except as they supply an establishment with a more intelligent set of employees who may be less liable to be injured.

It must be apparent that the acid tests applied by these three men will be entirely different. For one the test is the ratio of cost of accident to cost of production. The number of people hurt is purely incidental, and may or may not have any effect upon his result.

To the second the acid test is: How much do we as insurance carriers have to pay out of the premium rate which we assess against your pay roll? Here again the number and severity of accidents are purely incidental and would be entirely different in two different States having different rates of compensation.

To the third the acid test is: How many people do you hurt and how badly do you hurt them, and are you hurting fewer this year than last, and even though you may be hurting fewer people is this offset by the severity of the injury so that more lost time and actual suffering grows out of the fewer number of cases than out of the larger number? What he wants is the number of persons employed and the number of days they work, the number of accidents and the kind of accidents, the amount of time lost in each accident.

Now, since the length of day is so different in different establishments within the same State and so very different in different parts of the country and in different industries, he is not satisfied with a mere statement of number of days worked because the day does not always mean the same thing. He insists upon getting to a unit that is universal. An hour means 60 minutes all over the world, civilized or uncivilized. Hence he insists upon the total number of human or one-man hours in which the employees were exposed to the danger. This exposure we have by common consent termed the hazard.

I submit that this is the only test as to the value of accident-prevention work or methods or progress. We have from the cost accountant's point of view the number of men killed per million tons

of coal and the cost of accidents per ton. We have the cost of accidents per automobile, per locomotive, or ton of locomotive. We also have the cost of accidents per \$100 or \$1,000 of pay roll and the adjustment of premium to pay roll as based upon that cost.

The answer of the third party in our trio to all this is that it is not coal that gets hurt, that it is not the pay roll that gets hurt, and he does not give a rap about your coal or your pay-roll measurement and that from neither of these can you tell whether accidents are increasing or decreasing, whether your preventive measures are preventing accidents or not; that by neither of these standards can you tell whether your safety work pays or whether you are throwing your money away; that it is only by knowing, first, the one-man hour exposure to the hazard of the industry, second, the number of people injured, divided primarily into fatal and nonfatal and then the nonfatal divided into the severity or lost time so that he can develop a statement which is purely statistical in its method and nature—in other words the rate of accidents, fatal and nonfatal, to the severity rate based upon the actual man-hour exposure.

Give him this from year to year and he will tell you whether your safety devices and your accident-prevention program and method are accomplishing results. This figure can not be thrown out of line by increase in wages nor by decrease in wages, by increase in production nor by decrease in production. The basis is the actual exposure of the thing that gets hurt—the human body.

Give him this by departments and by occupations within the departments and he will tell you where your accidents are happening and how they are happening. He will tell you where to spend your money to get results and then he will be able to prove to you whether or not you have gotten results. When you have applied your accident-prevention schemes to the points in your factory where the accidents occur, when you have shaped your accident-prevention work on an actual report of causes, then you will have accomplished what the cost accountant wants to have accomplished, you will have accomplished what the insurance carrier would like to see accomplished, but which only the application of statistical methods to accident-prevention work gives any promise of really accomplishing.

At this conference we are interested to know something of the success or failure of the general movement for accident prevention. Every movement needs to be tested from time to time. There is a great tendency to fall into stereotyped ways of doing things and so fail to accomplish desired results.

The organized safety movement has now existed long enough to need testing and the more drastic the test can be the better. In the 14 years since the National Safety Council started on its career it has had time to demonstrate its strength and its weaknesses if it has them. The following questions may be propounded regarding the success of such organization and the interests which it represents:

1. Is the statistical record in standard form?
2. Has the organization attained a reasonable growth?
3. Does it enjoy public confidence?
4. Is the organization adequately meeting the task which it has undertaken?
5. Is it reaching those who ought to be reached?

The National Safety Council naturally becomes the object of such inquiries since it is the most important group now attempting the advancement of accident prevention. The council has done a notable statistical service in two directions. It has steadfastly urged its sections to formulate their statistical matter in accordance with the standard method. For the most part the sections have either arranged their material in standard form or have furnished it in such form that it could be easily changed in accordance with standard.

The cement section of the National Safety Council is, I think, to be especially commended for the manner in which it has handled accident returns. It is to be commended because of the scope of its material within the industry, for its scientific handling of the material, its standardization of methods, and the promptness with which it does the work. Knowledge of three items—man-hours, cases of accident, and time lost by the accidents—makes possible the calculation of rates which furnish indexes of frequency and severity very closely approximating precise accuracy.

It may be said, therefore, that in the matter of statistical method the National Safety Council meets the acid test.

Accidents at Metallurgical Works in the United States in 1924¹

THE statistics of accidents at metallurgical works, compiled each year by the United States Bureau of Mines, represent the entire metallurgical industry of the United States except iron blast-furnace plants, for which accident reports are not received by the bureau. The reports are furnished directly by operators of ore-dressing plants and smelters, with the exception that the data for California are furnished by the industrial accident commission of that State. The figures for smelting plants cover copper, lead, gold, and silver smelters and refineries; those for ore-dressing plants represent concentrating plants for copper, lead, and zinc ores, stamp mills, cyanide plants, iron-ore washers, flotation mills, and sampling works.

The total number of employees in these works in 1924 was 56,196, an increase of 2,325 over 1923. The total working time was equivalent to 18,884,463 man-shifts, an increase of about 6 per cent over 1923. Each man worked an average of 336 days as compared with 331 during the preceding year. The aggregate number of man-shifts worked by all employees in 1924 has not been equaled since 1920, either at mills or smelters, and the number of man-shifts at auxiliary works was greater than in any other year since 1920, with the exception of 1923, when it exceeded the number for 1924 by only about 2 per cent.

Accidents during the year resulted in 55 deaths and injury to 8,226 employees, as compared with the revised figures for the previous year of 58 deaths and 8,424 injuries. These figures relate to injuries

¹ United States, Department of Commerce, Bureau of Mines, Technical paper 395: Accidents at metallurgical works in the United States during the calendar year 1924, by William W. Adams. Washington, 1926.

disabling the workman beyond the day on which the accident occurred. Five of the accidents caused permanent total disability, 172 permanent partial disability, 2,100 temporary disability of more than 14 days, and 5,949 temporary disability not exceeding 14 days but exceeding the remainder of the day on which the accident occurred. Divided into the three main groups of plants, accidents at mills resulted in 20 deaths and 2,511 injuries among the 15,735 employees; at smelters, 16 deaths and 3,293 injuries among the 24,941 employees; and at auxiliary works, 19 deaths and 2,422 injuries among the 15,520 employees.

The fatality rate per thousand 300-day workers in 1924 was 1.24 at mills, 0.55 at smelters, and 1.08 at auxiliary works; the nonfatal injury rates were 156, 113, and 137, respectively. These figures represent a decrease in the fatality rate from 1923 and also from the 11-year average in the case of both mills and smelters, but a slight increase in the case of auxiliary works over 1923 and over the average for the eight years preceding, separate statistics on accidents having been compiled by the Bureau of Mines for the first time in 1913 for mills and smelters and in 1916 for auxiliary works. In mills the nonfatal injury rate shows a decrease from the 1923 figure but an increase over the 11-year average; in smelters there was a considerable decrease from the rates for both of these periods in 1924; and in auxiliary works an increase over both the 1923 figure and the eight-year average is shown.

The frequency rate per thousand full-time or 300-day workers in 1924 for all plants was 0.87 for fatalities and 131 for nonfatal injuries, as compared with 0.97 and 142, respectively, in 1923.

Accident rates for mills and smelters, calculated on a uniform number of man-hours of work performed, show that in 1924, as in the two preceding years, the 9-hour men in the mills had the lowest accident frequency rate—33 accidents per million hours of exposure; the rate for the 8-hour men was 68 per million hours, and for the 10-hour men, 88. At smelters the rate for the 9-hour men was 32 and for the 8-hour men 50. The men employed at 9-hour smelters comprised only about 2 per cent of the total at all smelters, so that the rather low accident frequency rate for the group in 1924, the report states, may be of little significance.

In both mills and smelters most of the employees work 8 hours a day. In 1924 returns from mills reporting the length of a standard day's work showed a total of 28,000,000 man-hours worked, of which 19,000,000 hours were worked on the 8-hour basis. In smelters the 8-hour shifts showed more than 52,000,000 hours out of a total of 56,000,000.

Table 1 shows the fatality and injury rates in mills and smelters per million hours' exposure, by length of shift and character of injury, for the year 1924. Table 2 shows these rates, by character of injury, in mills and smelters working 8-hour shifts in 1922, 1923, and 1924.

TABLE 1.—FATALITIES AND INJURIES IN MILLS AND SMELTERS PER MILLION HOURS' EXPOSURE, BY LENGTH OF SHIFT, 1924

Character of injury	Mills		Smelters	
	Rate per million hours' exposure in shifts of—			
	8 hours	9 hours	10 hours	8 hours
Fatalities	0.730		0.433	0.266
Disabilities:				
Permanent total			217	
Permanent partial	.730	0.443	1.082	.456
Other serious	14.961	9.747	19.262	15.073
Slight	51.554	22.596	66.662	34.078
Total nonfatal injuries	67.245	32.786	87.223	49.607
Grand total	67.975	32.786	87.656	49.873

TABLE 2.—FATALITIES AND INJURIES IN MILLS AND SMELTERS WORKING 8-HOUR SHIFTS, PER MILLION HOURS' EXPOSURE, IN 1922, 1923, AND 1924

Character of injury	Mills			Smelters		
	1922	1923	1924	1922	1923	1924
Fatalities	0.469	0.371	0.730	0.359	0.307	0.266
Disabilities:						
Permanent total				.030	.022	
Permanent partial	.391	.531	.730	1.047	1.952	.456
Temporary serious	12.818	13.685	14.961	16.248	15.352	15.073
Temporary slight	40.006	40.311	51.554	45.662	36.209	34.078
Total nonfatal injuries	53.305	54.527	67.245	62.987	53.535	49.607
Grand total	53.774	54.898	67.975	63.346	53.842	49.873

A comparison of the accident frequency rates in large plants and small plants shows that in 1924, as in 1922 and 1923, the larger plants—those employing the most men—generally had fewer accidents in proportion to the number of men employed. The lowest rate for ore-dressing plants was 99 accidents per thousand full-time workers, representing mills employing from 100 to 199 men each; the highest rate was 260, in mills employing from 1 to 9 men each. The lowest rate for smelters was 92 accidents per thousand full-time workers in plants employing 300 or more men; the highest was 327, representing plants having from 25 to 49 employees. When all of the ore-dressing plants and smelters are grouped into plants employing 100 or more men and those employing less than 100 men, a steady reduction is shown over the three-year period 1922 to 1924, except in the case of small smelters in 1923 when the rate was higher than in the other two years.

The report states that it is not possible to compute accurately the amount of lost time caused by accidents in metallurgical plants. However, it has been estimated that the 8,281 accidents which occurred at mills, smelters, and auxiliary works in 1924 represent a loss of 600,494 days, as compared with 660,526 days lost in 1923 as a result of the 8,482 accidents occurring in that year.

Table 3 gives a comparison of accident rates in 1924 in all branches of the mineral industry for which statistics are compiled by the Bureau of Mines:

TABLE 3.—ACCIDENT RATES IN DIFFERENT BRANCHES OF MINERAL INDUSTRIES IN 1924, COMPARED ON A 300-DAY BASIS (LENGTH OF SHIFT NOT CONSIDERED)

Branch of mineral industry	Aver- age days active	Men employed		Number killed or injured per thousand 300- day workers	
		Actual number	Equiva- lent in 300-day workers (calcu- lated)	Killed	Injured
Coal mines	192	779,613	499,897	4.79	—
All metal mines	290	123,128	119,113	3.51	278.04
Copper mines	315	32,477	34,092	3.55	347.82
Gold, silver, and miscellaneous metal mines	293	29,718	29,043	4.99	297.80
Iron mines	269	36,629	32,839	2.95	151.01
Lead and zinc mines (Mississippi Valley)	290	12,734	12,319	2.76	464.16
Nonmetallic mineral mines	281	11,570	10,820	1.94	178.74
All quarries (including outside works)	269	94,242	84,426	1.63	175.03
Cement rock quarries	328	12,519	13,694	2.26	169.13
Granite quarries	250	12,153	10,111	1.19	195.73
Limestone quarries	265	48,391	42,752	1.64	173.58
Marble quarries	298	5,704	5,717	1.22	131.89
Sandstone and bluestone quarries	235	5,430	4,258	1.88	169.09
Slate quarries	258	4,114	3,538	.57	159.98
Traprock quarries	223	5,871	4,356	1.84	234.39
All quarries (excluding outside works)	256	59,126	50,506	1.90	178.00
All quarries (outside works only)	290	35,116	33,920	1.24	170.61
Metallurgical plants:					
Ore-dressing plants	307	15,735	16,093	1.24	156.03
Smelters	352	24,941	29,231	.55	112.65
Auxiliary works	341	15,520	17,624	1.08	137.43
All coke ovens	303	20,451	20,681	1.16	79.54
Beehive coke ovens	187	6,450	4,025	.75	113.54
By-product coke ovens	357	14,001	16,656	1.26	71.33
Total, 1924	220	1,073,630	787,065	3.85	201.16
Total, 1923	222	1,153,804	852,145	3.60	203.91

Anemia Occurring Among Workers Handling Radioactive Substances

THE deaths of a number of young women employed in a dial-painting factory in New Jersey from the effects of the radioactive paste used in painting the watch and clock dials and of a chemist employed in the same factory have been the subject of a number of investigations by different individuals and organizations and of highly technical research on the part of Dr. Harrison S. Martland and other physicians associated with him in the care and study of some of these cases. The facts in regard to the exposure of these persons and the determinations reached from the study of the cases up to the spring of 1926 were summarized in the May, 1926, issue of the *Labor Review* (pp. 18-31). A further study¹ by Doctor Martland and Doctor Reitter of the type of anemia suffered by the chemist, who died in June, 1925, is here summarized.

Search of the literature, the report states, shows but six cases of aplastic pernicious anemia from exposure to mesothorium and radium.

¹ Leucopenic anemia of the regenerative type due to exposure to radium and mesothorium, by George S. Reitter, M. D., and Harrison S. Martland, M. D. Reprinted from the *American Journal of Roentgenology and Radium Therapy*, August, 1926.

Three of these cases occurred among workers in the London Radium Institute and were caused by exposure to radium alone. Two other cases were those of French chemists who had been exposed to both radium and mesothorium. They had been employed at one time in the Curie Laboratories but for three years before their deaths in 1925 they had been engaged in the commercial separation of thorium X from mesothorium, the exposure being mainly to emanation. Although the immediate cause of death in one of the five cases was acute pneumonia and in another infective endocarditis, all showed profound blood changes. It appears that no attempt was made to determine the amount of radioactivity in the organs of any of these individuals, but in the sixth case, reported by Martland, Conlon, and Knef in 1925,² qualitative tests were made which showed radioactive substances present in the liver, bones, and spleen.

Although much experimental work has been done on both man and animals to determine the changes that occur in irradiated tissues the case here reported is believed to be the first one recorded where a complete quantitative examination for the radioactivity of post-mortem tissues has been made.

The chemist whose case was the subject of special study had been engaged for 14 years in research work as well as in the commercial production of radium and mesothorium and had been exposed at times in the course of his work to varying quantities of these radioactive substances in both the sealed and unsealed forms. This exposure subjected him to alpha, beta, and gamma rays from the emanation, the microscopic dust particles in the atmosphere, and the unsealed preparations, and to gamma rays from the hermetically sealed preparations. About one year before his death the patient had begun to feel unduly tired and became fatigued easily. This condition increased gradually and was accompanied by an increasing loss of strength but not by loss of weight. While at work and still in apparently good health he collapsed suddenly and died one month later of an acute leucopenic³ anemia of the regenerative type.

The organs tested for the presence of radioactive material were the lungs, spleen, liver, gastrointestinal tract, heart, kidneys, and the bones. These organs were treated by drying and slow heat so that most of the organic matter was driven off, and the residue which was placed in sealed bottles was used for the electroscopic determinations. It was established by the test that the equivalent of 14 micrograms of radioactive element was distributed through the bony structure of the body, only about 5 per cent of which was due to radium itself, the balance being made up of the alpha radiation from mesothorium and the decay products of radium and mesothorium. The quantity of radioactive material in the lungs was estimated to be 1 microgram. The liver, gastrointestinal tract, heart, and kidneys showed no activity whatever, and the spleen was only feebly active. The electroscopic experiments showed, therefore, that practically no radioactive material was ingested by way of the gastrointestinal tract.

It was impossible either to estimate the amount of radiation the patient received from external exposure or the quantity of emanation he inhaled, but he had been exposed to radiation from the very pen-

² See *Labor Review*, January, 1926, pp. 171-174.

³ A decrease below normal in the number of white blood corpuscles.

trating gamma rays as well as the less penetrating alpha and beta rays four or five days a week over a period of 14 years. The results of this exposure are cumulative and must be considered as one of the factors in producing his anemia. In considering the question of the quantity of the emanation the patient inhaled, it was necessary to take into consideration the fact that although most of the emanation inhaled at any one time is eliminated from the body in five or six days, there was a considerable amount in his system most of the time, since he was probably inhaling it almost daily. With the decay of the emanation (radon has a half decay period of 3.85 days and thorium emanation of 54 seconds) there is finally produced an active deposit of slow change in the bone which emits beta and alpha rays. The fact that in the bones tested this was what caused the radioactivity shows there was a permanent deposit of the intense beta and alpha radiation set up in the blood-forming centers. It is considered that the portal of entry of the radium and mesothorium found in the bone was the lungs, the microscopic dust particles being carried from the walls of the lung tissue where it was probably deposited as sulphates or carbonates by the blood to the bony tissue where it was finally deposited.

The results of the study are summed up by the writers as follows:

1. It is definitely proven that radioactive substances can get into the body by way of the lungs alone.
2. We believe that this is the first case to be reported in which complete quantitative tests for the radioactivity in human postmortem tissues have been made.
3. It is definitely established that, by way of the lungs, both radium, mesothorium and the active deposit from emanation are deposited and stored in the organs of the hematopoietic system. From their constant irradiation, marked effects are produced directly in the leucoblastic and erythroblastic centers.
4. From a study of this case, it would seem that the introduction into the body, in any manner, of long-lived radioactive products is a somewhat hazardous procedure. From the inhalation of emanation, active deposit of slow change is deposited in the bones. The late harmful effects on the blood-forming organs therefore must be kept in mind. Further investigations along these lines should be made to establish just how much of these substances can safely be given.
5. Complete protective measures must be installed in all manufacturing plants, laboratories, hospitals, and private offices where radioactive substances are handled.

Control and Treatment of "Nickel Rash"¹

THE results of a study of methods of control and treatment of nickel rash which was made in a nickel refinery in Canada were published in a recent issue of the *Journal of Industrial Hygiene*. The refinery treats matte consisting of approximately 55 per cent nickel, 25 per cent copper, and 20 per cent sulphur, the matte being processed to fine nickel and copper in five different buildings in which the men are exposed to variable heat conditions and to varying quantities of nickel and nickel salts.

The rash appeared generally on exposed surfaces of the body as the forearms, wrists, neck, forehead, and the upper part of the chest, but was of two distinct types depending on the character of the work. Among the men who worked around the furnaces where it

¹ The *Journal of Industrial Hygiene*, December, 1926, pp. 517-527: "Studies in the control and treatment of 'nickel rash,'" by Frederic M. R. Bulmer and E. A. Mackenzie.

was very hot and dusty, the rash started as small papules which seemed to occur at the mouths of the pores and was accompanied by severe burning and itching. The irritability was increased by exposure to heat, especially if sweating occurred. In the milder cases the skin surrounding the eruption was apparently healthy, but in the severe cases the skin became greatly inflamed and swollen. In these cases the exudation was such that the condition resembled a severe, acute weeping eczema. The other cases occurred in the building in which the final refining took place by an electrolytic process where the employees were exposed to a hot moist atmosphere. The rash started with the occurrence of reddened patches of skin which were characterized by burning and itching. Unless such cases received early treatment they developed the features of the first type and there was a marked tendency among these patients towards relapse after apparent cure.

Various animal experiments were carried out to determine the effect of handling the nickel or nickel salts and of the ingestion of the nickel; and the influence of various factors such as the diet, the severity of the work, personal cleanliness, and the heat of the work-places were also studied.

It was determined that an insufficient cooling power in the atmosphere was the most important single factor in the incidence of the disease and that increased skin temperature allied with an alkaline sweat lowers the resistance of the exposed parts and increases their susceptibility to irritation. Attention to ventilation and the maintenance of a suitable cooling power in the air may be expected, therefore, greatly to reduce the incidence of nickel rash, and its cure can be hastened by large doses of calcium chloride which counteract the tendency towards the elimination of the excess amount of alkali in the sweat which excessive heat produces. The writers suggest that other occupational skin diseases may be produced by conditions similar to those which are of importance in the causation of nickel rash.

Relationship of Illumination to Industrial Safety

THE importance of good illumination in the prevention of industrial accidents was the subject of an address by Arthur C. Carruthers, editor of Safety Engineering, before a recent meeting of the Safety Council of Newark, N. J.

Aside from the importance of adequate illumination in increasing production, improving the quality of the product, reducing spoilage, and aiding in the conservation of eyesight, it is an important factor in any accident-prevention program. Proper illumination is a requirement of the human eye at all times but especially so in an industrial plant where the workers are surrounded with conditions which are potential accident hazards unless they are clearly and perfectly discernible.

The value of good lighting as an aid in selling their merchandise is recognized by merchants generally and stores are almost uniformly well lighted, but there is not yet equal recognition of its value in the manufacture of these products.

While the cooperation of the men is necessary in any accident-prevention program, the provision of good lighting depends solely upon the management; and the occurrence of accidents because of poor illumination can not be prevented by education, since no amount of personal carefulness on the part of employees can change the condition of poor lighting to one of safe lighting. If it is provided, however, it will prove effective in securing the employees' cooperation in other ways.

It is pointed out that many times an employee is blamed for carelessness, when as a matter of fact he may have been exercising proper care, but the light under which he was working was to blame for the accident. There are few statistics on the extent to which defective lighting is an accident cause because it is seldom considered in determining the cause of an accident. The opinions of eleven casualty companies which have a wide experience in regard to industrial accidents and their causes agree, however, that poor illumination is a prolific cause of accidents. One company estimates that it is the cause of from 13 to 20 per cent of all industrial accidents, and another states that at least 15 per cent are due to this cause.

Although it may seem difficult to the average person to determine what constitutes safe lighting, the lighting companies throughout the country have available illuminating engineers who can determine the actual conditions in any plant by measuring the lighting with a light meter and correcting it to meet safety standards. There is no reason, therefore, why the management of every industrial plant should not know the actual condition of lighting under which the employees are working. Even where the lighting is of the proper type and intensity, it is of importance that bulbs, reflectors, etc., should be kept clean in order that the efficiency of the lighting shall not be lost.

In determining the cause of accidents, the point of injury and the conditions surrounding the victim of the accident are usually noted, but as the lighting is neither a part of the point of injury nor of the injured person and also because it has not been sufficiently stressed as a cause of accidents it is frequently overlooked and, therefore, does not appear in the accident reports.

Therapeutic-Industrial Workshop for Girls

A THERAPEUTIC-INDUSTRIAL workshop for the rehabilitation of nervous girls and women has been opened recently by the Vocational Adjustment Bureau, New York City, according to the American Journal of Public Health (New York City) for November, 1926 (p. 1142). The aim of the workshop is to form a bridge between recovery from mental illness and reentrance into industry, and in some instances where an early diagnosis of an imminent breakdown had been made it has functioned as a preventive measure.

Hookworm Disease in Cotton-Mill Villages of Alabama and Georgia¹

A STUDY of the value of sanitation as a factor in hookworm control in a section of the country where the soil is heavily infested with hookworms was made in the summer of 1925 in four cotton-mill villages in southern Alabama and Georgia. These villages, which were owned and controlled by the mill owners, were chosen because they were well sanitized and because the residents originally came from rural districts where there was practically no sanitation and where hookworm disease was so severe as to form an economic menace to the people, affecting particularly the health of children of school age.

After the families have moved into the village where the housing and sanitary conditions are better and there is little or no opportunity for them to come in contact with infested soil, practically no new infestation is acquired and the hookworms previously acquired die in from three to five years. In view of this fact it seemed that a comparative study of the incidence and intensity of infestation in sanitized and unsanitized districts and study of the hookworm infestation of individuals having different lengths of residence in the mill villages would show the value of sanitation in the control of hookworm disease.

A total of 386 children from the four villages was examined for hookworm, of whom 263, or 68.1 per cent, showed some degree of infestation. Each child was given a general physical examination which included his weight and the determination of his hemoglobin value and all individuals with outstanding physical defects were excluded. Among those excluded were 17 positive cases which were found to be unsatisfactory for examination for intensity of infestation.

Fifty-five of the children examined had received hookworm treatment and of this number, only 13 were found to be free from hookworms. In most cases the treatments were given, however, from one to several years before the family left the farm, so that the treatments were only a slight factor in influencing the condition of the children. Of the total of 369 who were examined for intensity of infestation, 123 were negative, 176 were lightly infested, 60 were moderately infested, and 10 were heavily infested. Although a high incidence of the disease is shown for the entire group, a comparison of the intensity of infestation according to the length of residence in the villages shows that the intensity decreased rapidly with the increasing years of residence, so that after seven years the disease was practically eliminated. The resulting improvement in health is shown by a comparison of the weight and of the hemoglobin of the children, as great improvement was evident among those who had been longest away from the country, in spite of the fact that only a few hookworm treatments had been given at the mill village.

In view of the fact that residence in the sanitized area had resulted in so largely eliminating the disease, it is recommended that all children from heavily infested areas should be examined by an

¹ The Journal of Industrial Hygiene, September, 1926, pp. 382-391: "Hookworm disease in cotton mill villages of Alabama and Georgia: A study on the value of sanitation in a soil province heavily infested with hookworm," by Donald L. Augustine.

intensity method on their entrance into mill villages and that a standard treatment be given to all children suffering from the disease in order to relieve suffering and bring about an earlier control of the disease than can be secured by sanitation alone.

Industrial Accidents in Chile, 1910 to 1924

THE Chilean Labor Department recently published statistics¹ of industrial accidents occurring in Chile during the years 1910 to 1924. The following table taken from this report gives the total number of industrial accidents for each of those years and the number resulting in death and in permanent total, partial, and temporary disability:

NUMBER OF ACCIDENTS IN CHILE, AND NUMBER RESULTING IN DEATH AND IN PERMANENT TOTAL, PARTIAL, AND TEMPORARY DISABILITY, 1910 TO 1924, BY YEARS

Year	Accidents resulting in—				Total number of accidents
	Death	Permanent total disability	Partial disability	Temporary disability	
1910	128	10	182	1,449	1,769
1911	98	10	218	1,499	1,825
1912	333	15	315	2,159	2,822
1913	159	17	363	2,490	3,029
1914	207	16	336	2,304	2,863
1915	86	7	159	1,089	1,341
1916	159	14	291	1,998	2,462
1917	161	14	296	2,030	2,501
1918	131	15	324	2,222	2,692
1919	145	13	270	1,850	¹ 2,277
1920	115	17	364	2,497	2,993
1921	68	19	416	2,854	3,357
1922	239	4	336	3,196	3,775
1923	107	28	369	3,401	3,905
1924	91	32	658	2,750	3,531

¹ This is not the exact sum of the items, but is as printed in the report.

Decree Regarding Sanitation in Workshops in Peru²

BY A recent presidential decree in Peru the Minister of Public Works is made responsible, through the medium of the board of health, for the sanitary inspection of all industrial undertakings in the Republic.

The board of health is to deal with the inspection of all safety devices in factories, with questions of ventilation, lighting, drinking water, and general hygienic conditions in all kinds of industrial undertakings, and also with the protection of women and children in industry. In addition, the board of health is to establish sanitary measures in respect to working hours and the minimum age of employees and supervise the enforcement of regulations concerning the establishment of day nurseries and the operation of workers' dispensaries. Industrial establishments are to keep a register in which the board of

¹ Chile. Direccion General del Trabajo. Boletin No. 24, Santiago, 1926. Anexo XXXXI.

² Peru, El Peruano, Lima, Feb. 17, 1926, and Pan American Union Bulletin, Washington, July, 1926.

health will note the regulations to be observed regarding the health and welfare of employees. Owners or managers of factories or commercial undertakings who do not comply with the regulations of the health board will be fined in an amount varying between 5 and 100 Peruvian pounds.³ Owners of industrial concerns, or their representatives, must submit to the board of health a monthly report, accompanied by a medical certificate regarding the state of their workers' health, the number of accidents which occurred, and the origin of these accidents.

³ Pound at par=\$4.8665; exchange rate Nov. 10, 1926=\$3.62.

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION AND SOCIAL INSURANCE

Successive and Vested Rights in Compensation Benefits

THE beneficiaries of compensation laws may be divided roughly into two classes—*injured workers entitled to compensation by reason of personal injury disabling them for work or producing a compensable disfigurement*, and surviving dependents of various classes. Members of the first class receiving or entitled to receive compensation benefits may die during the compensation period either as a result of the occupational injury, or from another cause. Is an award, actual or potential, as for a permanent disability, total or partial, a vested right surviving to a dependent or a personal representative of a workman dying from his injury? Does the right arising from the personal injury merge with that arising from the death due to the injury, or are they to be considered separately? What survival right is there in the case of an injured workman dying from another cause than the industrial injury during the compensation period?

In the case of beneficiaries, rights may terminate by reason of the death or remarriage of widow or widower, or the death or marriage or attainment of noncompensable age of a child. What laws or constructions of right govern the readjustment of benefits received by such persons if there are other dependents surviving? Would a personal representative be entitled in any case? An incidental related question is as to burial expenses, i. e., whether they are an independent item, or are included in the death benefits paid to dependents.

The laws of some States answer some or all of these questions specifically, while in others the intent of the law and the equities of the case must be considered and rules formulated in accordance with the judgment of the administrative bodies and of the courts. It has not been possible to obtain such construction for all States on every point, but it is the purpose of the present article to show (in so far as available material will permit) the provisions of law and the administrative and judicial construction of the various statutes as regards successive awards of compensation where payments to beneficiaries are terminated in the various ways indicated above.

As to the relation of death benefits to any prior allowance that may have been made for the disability of the injured employee, the doctrine is generally, though not uniformly, recognized that the two are independent. (*Johnson v. Ismert-Hinkle Milling Co.* (Kansas case), p. 85.) This independence is frequently only one of right, however, and not of admeasurement, since 21 States¹ provide that

¹ Alabama, California, Colorado, Delaware, Hawaii, Idaho, Illinois, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, New Hampshire, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, and Wisconsin.

any sums paid the employee for disability shall be deducted from the award for death; while 13 others² prescribe a maximum period during which benefits are to be paid, the period of benefit payments necessarily forming a part thereof. In one of these (Pennsylvania) benefits at a reduced rate are payable to children until the age of 16 is reached, despite the general limitation of 300 weeks for both disability and death.

Where payments to a widow or widower run until death or remarriage³ (except in Minnesota, where the amount but not the period is limited), and in the States prescribing lump-sum payments,⁴ no deduction is provided for. In New Jersey death benefits are limited to 300 weeks, but the total period of compensation for death and disability combined may not exceed 500 weeks unless, on the expiration of that period, there are children not yet 16 years of age.

Whether a specific award on account of permanent partial disability or a permanent total disability is anything more than a purely personal right is, in the majority of cases, answered in the negative; but in 11 States⁵ either dependents or personal representatives are entitled to any balance remaining where the injured worker died from another cause than the injury; the same is true of awards for permanent total disability in eight States.⁶

Allowances for expenses of burial are usually independent of other benefits, but in nine States⁷ the amount may be deducted from the compensation granted to dependents or is allowed only in case no dependents survive. The law of Porto Rico makes no provision for burial in any case. That of Oklahoma does not apply to fatal cases.

Following are brief statements relating to the separate States, based on an examination of the laws, the decisions and rulings available, and in some cases on answers to inquiries addressed to the administrative commissions.

Alabama

THE Alabama law provides for compensation in case of death to the amount of \$5,000, to be paid in weekly installments not to exceed 300 weeks. "All payments previously made as compensation for such injury shall be deducted from the compensation, if any, due on account of death." (Sec. 13(f).) Where a man was injured and died more than four years (some 218 weeks) thereafter as a result of the injury, the widow's claim for the death was approved, the sum paid to the employee as disability benefits being deducted. (Moss *v.* Standridge (1926), 110 So. 17.) The allowance for burial appears to be an independent item. (Sec. 14(16).)

The statute also provides that payments to any beneficiary cease on his or her death, marriage, or child attaining the age of 18; the unpaid balance of any compensation awarded a widow shall, on her remarriage, be paid to the decedent's children, if any. (Sec. 14(9).) The question was raised in *Ex parte Central Iron & Coal Co.* (1923),

² Connecticut, Georgia, Indiana, Iowa, Maine, Maryland, Montana, New Mexico, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Vermont, and Virginia.

³ Arizona, Nevada, New York, North Dakota, Oregon, Washington, West Virginia, United States.

⁴ Alaska, Porto Rico, Wyoming.

⁵ Colorado, Connecticut, Indiana, Maine, Maryland, New Jersey, New York, Oregon, Vermont, Virginia, and Wisconsin.

⁶ Colorado, Indiana, Maine, New Jersey, Oregon, Vermont, Washington, and Wisconsin.

⁷ Alaska, Illinois, Kansas, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, South Dakota, and Texas.

209 Ala. 22, 95 So. 472, as to the amount payable to an infant on the remarriage of the widow. Section 15 of the act provides that payments to dependents shall be proportioned to the amount of support received from the deceased employee's income during his life, and this provision was offered as affecting the amount to be awarded the child. The court held, however, that the section referred only to partial dependents and that the child "in the arms of the mother" was totally dependent, "though with no means of ascertaining what was contributed by the father to its support." The act was construed as warranting the transfer of the unpaid balance to the child without diminution.

The same employer contested a case involving the same principle, with the additional factor of the birth of a posthumous child; also of the elimination of one child by reason of his reaching the age of 18 years. The employer contended that, since the statutory limitation of one year had expired before the remarriage of the widow, or the attainment of 18 years by the son, no adjustment that would include the posthumous child, as an original beneficiary, could be made; while the four remaining minors would receive only the amounts originally awarded. The court held that the amount of compensation once vested can not be changed except as provided by statute, but that it might be reapportioned at any time within the benefit period, and that posthumous children being specifically mentioned in the law, no difference existed as to their rights. It was, therefore, held that not only should the unpaid balance otherwise due the widow be paid to the children on her remarriage, but that the share of the oldest son should not lapse, but be available for benefits for the younger children, five in number, the law providing maximum benefits where three or more dependent children under 18 survive. (Ex parte Central Iron & Coal Co. (1925), 212 Ala. 367, 102 So. 797.)

What would take place in the case of a widow's death is not equally clarified. Section 14 (14) provides that compensation payable to a dependent shall cease upon the death or remarriage of such a dependent. The same subsection refers to the dependency of a child terminating at the age of 18. By analogy with the finding in the case last above noted, it would seem that, if other beneficiaries were in existence, benefits payable to the deceased or married beneficiary would be redistributed to such other dependents in the same way as was the share of the son attaining the age of 18 years in that case.

An employee permanently and totally disabled ceases to be entitled to benefits on becoming an inmate of a public institution, unless he has persons wholly dependent upon him, whose dependence shall be determined as in case of death. (Sec. 13 (d).)

Alaska

BENEFITS provided by the compensation law of Alaska are payable in a lump sum for permanent total disability, for scheduled partial disabilities, and for death. Temporary total disability is compensated by a payment of 50 per cent of the average daily wages during disability. No reference is made to the deduction of any amount paid for temporary total disability in case a death benefit becomes due by the subsequent decease of the injured work-

man. No other question can arise as to vested rights, the payment of a lump sum being necessarily final.

Burial expenses are allowed only in cases where there are no dependents.

Arizona

INASMUCH as the present compensation law of Arizona came into operation only with the decision of the supreme court of the State holding it constitutional, in January, 1926, no decisions of the courts construing it are available. So far as the terms of the act are concerned, death benefits do not appear to be affected by the prior payment of disability benefits on account of the same injury. Payments to a widow continue until her death or remarriage, two years' compensation being payable to her in one sum upon remarriage. (Sec. 70(A) 2, 4.) This would seem to bar any distribution to the children in such an event. At any rate, no provision is made for reapportionment. In case of her death leaving children surviving, the amounts primarily awarded to the children are increased, but not to exceed the 66½ per cent maximum. (Sec. 70(A) 4.) A child's share ceases when it dies, marries, or reaches the age of 18 years. (Ibid.) It is not clear whether redistribution could then be made of such portion, but perhaps the provision that the right of dependents to a death benefit becomes fixed as of the date of the death, "irrespective of any subsequent change in conditions" (Sec. 72 (b)) may imply that no adjustment will be made; this, however, may relate only to the right, and not to the amount that might be shared in the event of death, marriage, or attaining the age of 18 by one of the group, the law authorizes the commission to apportion benefits to a widow or widower and dependent children, "from time to time," in such way as it deems best for the interests of the beneficiaries, without reference to the occasion for such apportionment. (Sec. 70 (A) 8.)

An unusual provision is to the effect that dependents dying during the term of the payment of benefits are to receive a burial allowance, not in excess of \$150, the same as an injured employee dying as a result of the injury. (Sec. 70 (A) 10.) Such allowance is in all cases in addition to other compensation payable under the act. (Sec. 70 (A) 1.)

California

UNDER the California compensation law, on the death of an employee, any accrued and unpaid compensation for disability goes to the dependents or the personal representative or heirs without administration, but the death is considered as the termination of the disability. (Sec. 9 (b) 3.) The maximum amount to be allowed as a death benefit is a sum which, when added to the disability indemnity accrued and payable, makes a total indemnity equal to three times the average annual earnings. (Sec. 9 (c) 1.) Until the amendment of 1925 (ch. 354), the burial allowance was counted as part of this total, but it is now a separate item.

The free adjustment of benefits among beneficiaries is provided for, the commission being authorized to "set apart or reassign the death benefit to any one or more of the dependents in accordance with their respective needs," though in the event of the death of a

sole dependent only accrued payments go to the estate, such death terminating the death benefit. (Sec. 14 (e).) Obviously, the power to reassign covers cases in which there are other dependents surviving. The statute makes no reference to the remarriage of a widow, but the commission holds that such event does not terminate the payment of benefits (*Walters v. Messick* (1918), 5 I. A. C. Dec. 111); in another case the award was made to a widow and children of the deceased only after her remarriage. (*State Comp. Ins. Fund v. Moon* (1921), 8 I. A. C. Dec. 100.)

In a case where the disability sustained by the deceased was permanent and he died from another cause before the entire amount of compensation awarded because of his permanent injury had been paid, his widow was considered not entitled to the balance he would have received had he lived, since under the statute death is deemed to terminate disability. (*Tapscott v. Lloyd & Burns Drilling Co.* and *State Comp. Ins. Fund* (1924), 11 I. A. C. Dec. 5.)

Colorado

THE Colorado law provides for a maximum death benefit of \$3,750, payments to run not more than six years from the date of the injury; any disability benefits paid the injured man are to be deducted from this amount. (Sec. 54.) Benefits to any dependent terminate on death, marriage, or minor becoming 18 years of age, unless incapacitated, and on such termination they survive to remaining dependents, if any. (Sec. 58.) If the death is due to another cause than the accident itself, any disability benefits unpaid go to surviving dependents until the permanent total disability benefit (\$3,750) has been exhausted. (Sec. 64.) The same rule applies in the case of any permanent partial disability benefit which may have been awarded the deceased workman. (*Ibid.*) Burial expenses are in addition to compensation awards. (Sec. 59.)

If a widow or widower without children remarries while in receipt of compensation benefits, any remaining amount of the compensation is commuted to a lump sum equal to one-half such amount, but if there be a dependent child or children the entire unpaid balance of compensation is payable to it or them. (Sec. 55.)

Where a widow with several children remarried, and shortly afterwards was deserted, leaving her and the children dependent on her own earnings, it was held that the award for the death of the first husband, father of the children, should be made payable to her as in the original award. (*Walker Case*, 1922, Sixth Ann. Rep. Ind. Com., Index No. 1145.) A similar liberal interpretation of the law was made in the case of a workman suffering temporary total disability which would presumably be followed by a permanent partial disability, undetermined at the time of the death of the injured man from another cause than the injury. Though the widow was not entitled to death benefits, since the death was not the result of the accident, she was held entitled to the maximum permanent partial disability award in addition to any payments to the employee for the temporary total disability. (*Brady v. Elgin Laundry Co.*, Ind. Com. of Colorado, July 16, 1925.)

Connecticut

THE limit of a benefit for death under the Connecticut law is 312 weeks from the date of the death. Payments to a widow or widower terminate on death or remarriage, but the amount goes to other dependents, if any. The allowance for burial is separate from other provisions. (Secs. 5349, 5350.)

The complete independence of disability and death benefits was emphasized in a case (*Jackson v. Berlin Construction Co.* (1918), 92 Conn. 155, 105 Atl. 326), in which a man suffering from a disabling injury received benefits for nearly two years, subsequently dying on account of the injury. From the award for death the employer appealed, asking a deduction of the amount paid under the disability benefit. The lower court sustained this view, but the supreme court of errors reversed the judgment saying:

The compensation expressly given the defendant by the act should not be permitted to be diminished by crediting sums paid the employee in his lifetime, unless this course is plainly sanctioned by the statute and we think the contrary is the reasonable construction.

The court [below] failed to note that the act provides two distinct forms of compensation, the one for incapacity, the other for death; the one payable to and belonging to the employee, the other payable to and belonging to the dependent.

It seems obvious, however, that such award is subject to the limit of 312 weeks from the date of death. (Sec. 5349.)

Where a permanent partial disability was awarded a schedule benefit for a fixed period and the employee died from an unrelated cause before the expiration of that period, the administrator of the estate of the deceased workman was held entitled to the unpaid balance. The award was said to be not dependent on the fact of the continuance of an impairment of wage-earning power, but on the occurrence of the event fixing an award of this specific duration.

There is no statutory provision which expressly or impliedly requires that the weekly payments should cease at the death of the employee, but, on the contrary, the statute expressly requires that they shall continue for the period named. (*Forkas v. International Silver Co.* (1924), 100 Conn. 417, 123 Atl. 831.)

Delaware

ACCORDING to the provisions of the law of Delaware, the period during which compensation is payable to the dependents of a deceased employee (285 weeks) is subject to a reduction by the number of weeks during which payments were made to the deceased, either for temporary total disability or for permanent partial disability. Burial expenses are distinct. (3193j, sec. 103 (d).)

If compensation to any beneficiary ceases for any reason, surviving dependents are entitled to the entire compensation on the basis of such payments as they would have been entitled to at the time of the death of the deceased parent if there had been no other dependent. Death or remarriage of the widow or widower, or the widower becoming capable of self-support terminates compensation to the party; also in case of children becoming 16 years of age. (3193k, sec. 104.9.)

If the employee dies from some other cause than the injury, "the liability for compensation, expenses of last sickness and burial of such employee, shall cease." (3193j, sec. 103 (d).) This would

seem to preclude the construction placed on a permanent partial disability award such as adopted by the courts of Connecticut. Benefits not paid at the time of such death go to the nearest dependent. (3193tt, sec. 139a (e).)

Georgia

THE period of death benefits is fixed by the Georgia compensation act at 300 weeks as a maximum, and if the injured man has received compensation prior to his death, death benefits date from the last payment. (Sec. 38 (d).) Burial expenses are "in addition to any other compensation." (Sec. 38 (a).) In case of the termination of payments to any beneficiary on account of death, remarriage or cessation of dependency, a readjustment of the unpaid compensation is to be made to the surviving dependents. (Sec. 39 (c).)

Where an employee entitled to compensation dies from a cause not resulting from the injury, the award terminates. (Sec. 38.) This precludes payments for permanent partial disability being considered a vested right.

Hawaii

THE period of death benefits is prescribed for various classes of cases, the maximum to a widow or widower being 312 weeks. The amount of compensation paid in any case may not exceed \$5,000 in the aggregate. If a period of disability, either total or partial, has preceded death, such period is to be deducted. (Secs. 9, 11.) The expense of burial is an independent allowance. (Sec. 7.)

If compensation to any person ceases before the expiration of the compensation period, surviving beneficiaries shall receive such amounts as they would have received if they had been the only persons entitled to compensation at the time of the decedent's death. (Sec. 9.)

Idaho

SINCE the law of Hawaii closely follows that of Idaho, the statements above made apply also to Idaho, with the exception of the fact that the compensation period for a widow or widower may not "exceed 400 weeks."

Illinois

UNDER the law of Illinois compensation for death is to be four times the average annual earnings of the deceased person, subject to a maximum of \$4,350; any disability payments made to the injured man before his death are to be deducted therefrom. (Sec. 7.) Burial expenses are allowed only in cases in which there are no dependents. The death of a beneficiary terminates the payment of awards, subject to certain exceptions (sec. 21); but no provision is made for termination or commutation in the case of the remarriage of the widow. It was accordingly held that such remarriage does not put a stop to the periodical payments awarded for the death of a workman, over the contention that the "legal obligations to support" were ended by her remarriage so that she was no longer a dependent

of the deceased workman. The court found no such limitation written in the law, "the right to compensation being a vested right of the beneficiary," so that until the legislature should provide the contrary, remarriage does not interfere with benefit payments. (*Wangler Boiler & Sheet Metal Works Co. v. Industrial Commission* (1919), 287 Ill. 118, 122 N. E. 366.) Even where the widow herself had died before the settlement of her claim, her administrator was held entitled to collect benefits for the interval between the death of her husband and that of the wife. "The right to receive compensation was fixed as of the time of the employee's death," and the failure of consummation of the proceedings at the time of her death "is an incident which does not decide whether she was entitled to compensation." (*East St. Louis Board of Education v. Industrial Commission* (1921), 298 Ill. 61, 131 N. E. 123.)

It appears that no award could be made to the injured workman which would carry forward rights to a dependent or representative in case of his death from another cause than the occupational injury, in view of the definite provision that "any right to receive compensation hereunder shall be extinguished by the death of the person or persons entitled thereto," except where a beneficiary under a death award dies leaving surviving "a parent, sister, or brother of the deceased employee, at the time of his death dependent upon him for support." (Sec. 21.) This does not cover the case of the death of a widow leaving a child surviving, the language of the statute providing for no proportionate award, but merely of "a sum equal to four times the average annual earnings," if a widow, child, or children legally dependent survive. Thus, in the case *Swift & Co. v. Industrial Commission* (1923), 309 Ill. 11, 140 N. E. 17, the employer undertook to secure an abatement of the widow's "share" where there was a minor child surviving her death. The award had been to her for the support of herself and the child, at a fixed rate for a fixed period. Though the age of 16 years is used in the law as the maximum to be considered in making awards on behalf of children, either alone or where the widow survives, the fact that the surviving child in this case was above 16 years of age at the time of her mother's death did not affect the decision of the court that "the widow at her death left surviving one of her class to receive the remainder of the compensation not already paid to the widow for the support of them both."

Indiana

THE death benefit under the Indiana law is for the fixed period of 300 weeks, with a weekly maximum amount. If death occurs during the disability period, the point of departure for the measurement of a death benefit is the date of the original injury, and not of the death. (Sec. 37.) Benefits payable to a widow, widower, or child terminate upon the marriage of beneficiary, and to a child, unless incapacitated, on reaching the age of 18. (Sec. 38.) Prior to an amendment of 1919, the remarriage of the widow cut off all benefits, so that a dependent child thereafter would receive nothing. (*Riggs v. Lehigh Portland Cement Co.* (1921), 76 Ind. App. 308, 131 N. E. 231.) As the law now stands, the widow's dependency is terminated, but not that of a child. It was held under the amend-

ment that, on the remarriage of a widow, a child was entitled to the entire amount payable, and not merely to a continuance of its original portion. (*Sumner Sollitt Co. v. Sheely* (1926), 153 N. E. 894.)

Expenses for burial are an independent grant. (Sec. 39.)

A specific provision of the act secures to the "next of kin dependent upon him for support" any unpaid balance due a workman entitled to compensation for an injury and dying from some other cause than the injury before the complete payment of the award. (Sec. 36.) This right was held to extend to a revision of an erroneous award agreed to by the injured man, under which payments had been made for 79 weeks without the approval of the industrial board. After his death from another cause, the widow and infant child applied for a disability award under the terms of the compensation act. The board found that the benefit should have been about 80 per cent larger for the expired period, and also ordered the larger amount to be paid for the remainder of the period of 150 weeks which was the measure of the total term of compensation due on account of the specific injury. (*Wenning v. Turk* (1922), 78 Ind. App. 355, 135 N. E. 665.) The same rule applied where no award had been made at all at the time of the injured man's death, about six months after the accident causing the injury (loss of eye). The statutory amount provided for such an injury was applied for by the widow after his death, and though the appellate court declared that "the statute is anomalous, in that the widow of an employee who dies from causes other than the injury may receive compensation for a longer period of time than she would if her husband had died as a result of the injury," the question was for the legislature and not for the courts, and the award was affirmed. (*National Power Construction Co. v. Rouleau* (1924), 81 Ind. App. 585, 144 N. E. 557.)

The rule of a vested right is not applied where the payment is a death benefit, so that although a widow had received but little more than one-third of the 300 weeks' benefits awarded her, her right was held to terminate with her death, and her surviving daughter would not be entitled to the unpaid benefits accruing thereafter. (*Smith v. City of Bluffton* (1923), 80 Ind. App. 574, 141 N. E. 532.) The daughter had received compensation for some months until her 18th birthday, but as her dependency under the law ceased at that age she could claim nothing. "Dependency is the prerequisite to receiving compensation, and when it ceases compensation ceases"—a direct contrast with the ruling of the Illinois courts in the case noted above. No specific provision indicates what would have been the ruling had there been another dependent, but the authority of the commission to modify awards on change in conditions (sec. 45) seems broad enough to cover such a case no less than where there is a change in the physical condition of an injured employee.

Where a widow in receipt of benefits as the sole dependent subsequently remarried and signed a final settlement with her husband's employer, then had her second marriage annulled on account of fraud, the board and the appellate court held her entitled to reinstatement, since the marriage that would terminate dependence must be a "valid and subsisting marriage," and not a void or voidable one. (*Eureka Block Coal Co. v. Wells* (1925), 83 Ind. App. 181, 147 N. E. 811.)

Iowa

THE Iowa compensation law specifically provides that where weekly compensation has been paid to an injured employee prior to his death, the compensation payable to his dependents shall run from the date to which the employee was paid but shall not continue for more than 300 weeks from the date of the injury, corresponding in this respect with the law of Indiana. (Sec. 2477-m 9.) Thus, where the accidental injury was the proximate cause of the death it was held that compensation for 300 weeks, including the payments already made, was the proper award. (*Nicholson v. National Union Coal Mining Co.*, Workmen's Compensation Service, 1920, p. 58.) In case of the death of a spouse during the benefit period, the balance remaining is to go to surviving dependents. (Sec. 2477-m 16 (4).) The allowance for burial is distinct from the compensation provisions. (Sec. 2477-m 9 (c).)

A mother, not actually dependent, but entitled to earnings at the time of the injury of a minor killed in the course of his employment, was held entitled to 300 weeks' compensation, less 22 weeks paid the son before his death, though he would soon have attained his majority. The arbitration committee, the industrial commission and the district court were of the opinion that the award could not extend beyond the period of decedent's minority (about a year longer), and so ruled. The supreme court reversed the judgment, holding that the parent was entitled to the compensation for the full term, regardless of the time the son would have reached his majority. (*Double v. Iowa-Nebraska Coal Co.* (1924), 198 Iowa 1351, 201 N. W. 97.)

Prior to July 1, 1917, the statute gave to the surviving spouse of a workman losing his life under compensation coverage, 300 weekly payments without any qualification. The law was amended in that year so as to provide that payments shall cease on remarriage, if there are no dependent children. Where there are dependent children they are entitled to the full payment for 300 weeks, less payments already made; and if this makes it possible for them to receive a second benefit, as in case of the accidental death of the stepfather, nevertheless the law is clear as to such payment for the father's death. (*Davey v. Norwood-White Coal Co.* (1923), 195 Iowa 459, 192 N. W. 304.)

In another case involving a dependent widow and children, payments were made until the widow remarried and signed a release, whereupon the defendants claimed that all compensation ceased, as the widow had lost her right, and the children, having been placed in an orphan's home, were no longer dependent. About a year later, the widow was divorced, and she and the children filed a petition for the balance of the compensation. The court held that the children were entitled to the balance as they were still dependent when the widow remarried, and she could not renounce their rights, which became fixed on the death of their father. (*Kramer v. Tone Bros.* (1924), 198 Iowa 1140, 199 N. W. 985.) Without deciding whether the remarriage "alone terminated her compensation," it was held that the widow had waived further compensation to herself, so that the remainder, without diminution, went to the children.

Benefits payable to an employee on account of personal injury terminate with his death from another cause than the injury. (Sec. 2477-m 10.)

Kansas

THE Kansas compensation law provides that where the death of a workman results from an industrial injury, compensation shall be paid equal to three times his average yearly earnings, but not exceeding \$3,800, provided that any payment under the act on account of the injury from which the death resulted, except medical fees, shall be deducted. (Sec. 5905.) Allowance for burial is made only in case there are no dependents.

It is further provided that the marriage of any dependent shall terminate all compensation of such dependent, but it shall not affect the compensation allowed to others. Where an award had been apportioned and the widow remarried, the amount the widow surrendered because of such remarriage was reapportioned among the dependent children, the total award suffering no reduction. (*McCormick v. Central Coal & Coke Co.* (1925), 117 Kans. 686, 232 Pac. 1071.)

Where arbitration proceedings had been started before the death of the employee, but no compensation had been paid, the dependent children brought an action for compensation more than six months later. The employer demurred, claiming that the right had lapsed under the six-month limitation fixed by the act. The supreme court took the position that the claim made by the injured man was available to the surviving dependents, saying:

The statute does not contemplate that two claims for compensation shall be made, one by the injured employee and another by those independent [dependent] on him, in the event of his death from the injury. One claim for compensation satisfies the statute. The claim of compensation made by O. R. Johnson was sufficient for himself and for his dependents in the event that the injuries he had sustained should result in his death. It follows that the petition stated a cause of action and that the demurrer thereto should have been overruled. (*Johnson v. Ismert-Hincke Milling Co.* (1923), 114 Kans. 470, 219 Pac. 256.)

While the point is not specifically made, the inference seems proper that the award, if made, should cover the period of disability as well as the death benefits. And in a case in which a man was fatally injured and his widow, his sole dependent, died before the determination of her claim, it was held that she had had a vested right to an award, so that her administrator was entitled to proceed to enforce it. (*Smith v. Kaw Boiler Works* (1919), 104 Kans. 591, 180 Pac. 259.)

Benefits payable an injured workman cease in the event of his death from another cause than the injury, but any amount due and unpaid at his death is to be paid to his dependents direct, or to his personal representative, if there are no dependents. (Sec. 5905 (20).) Where a lump sum was awarded for disability, but payment was stayed by appeal, the claimant dying in the meantime, it was held that the administratrix had a right to revive the claim for the benefit of the claimant's estate. (*Monson v. Batelle* (1918), 102 Kans. 208, 170 Pac. 801.)

Kentucky

THE Kentucky compensation law provides that compensation for the death of an employee from an accident arising out of and in the course of his employment shall be payable for 335 weeks, not over \$4,000 in amount. (Sec. 12.) It further provides that where death occurs after a period of disability, "the period of disability shall be deducted from the total period of compensation and the benefits paid thereunder from the maximum allowed for the death." (Sec. 15.) When compensation to any dependent terminates, a readjustment of benefits is to be made, payments to other beneficiaries for the unexpired period to be the same as "if they had been the only persons entitled to compensation at the time of the accident." (Sec. 13.) Funeral allowances are in addition to compensation. (Sec. 12.)

Benefits for nonfatal injuries are personal to the employee. Thus in a case in which an injured employee died from another cause than the injury and there had been an award according to schedule, it was held that the personal representative of the deceased would be entitled to recover the unpaid installments to the date of the death. However, the injured employee had no vested right in payments which were not due him at the time of his death, and no right survived to his personal representative. An agreement had been entered into in this case between the employee and the employer, commuting payments to a lump sum, but this agreement was held unenforceable where the final approval was made after the death of the employee (*Gayhart v. Elkhorn Piney Coal Mining Co.*, Workmen's Compensation Board, Leading Decisions, 4th Report, 1920-1922, p. 182). A ruling to the same effect was approved by the Court of Appeals of the State in a very similar case. (*Ashland Iron & Mining Co. v. Fowler* (1924), 208 Ky. 422, 271 S. W. 589.)

Louisiana

THE compensation law of Louisiana provides that when payments of compensation have been made to an employee before his death, the compensation "shall begin on the date of the last of such payments, and shall not continue for more than 300 weeks from the date of the injury"; (Sec. 8. 2. (j); also that any sum paid for disability shall be deducted from a death benefit. (Sec. 8. 1. (d) 18.) Burial expenses are apparently a separate allowance. (Sec. 8. 5.)

In the case of the remarriage of a widow or widower, the compensation ceases as to them and the balance is awarded to the other dependents, if any. Compensation to any dependent ceases at death and to minor children, brothers and sisters, upon reaching the age of 18 unless mentally or physically incapacitated. But this "shall not affect payments allowed other dependents." (Sec. 8. 2. (f).) This amendment of 1926 takes the place of a provision that the compensation of surviving dependents should become the same as if they were the only surviving beneficiaries, which seems to be a restriction on liberality. However, the amount of the award varies with the number of dependents, so that the termination of the right of one might reduce the total benefits payable by the employer or insurer.

If a child becomes nondependent or if the widow of the deceased remarries, the individual compensation ceases, and other children would receive their pro rata award as specified by law. For example, a widow alone receives 32½ per cent, this being increased to 65 per cent if there are two or more children. If the children become 18 years of age the widow would be entitled to but 32½ per cent; or if she remarries, the children are apparently allowed only the remaining fraction.

Neither the act nor any decision of court at hand indicates the disposition to be made of a disability award in case of the injured person's death from another cause than the injury.

Maine

THE Maine compensation law provides a death benefit of 300 weeks from the date of the injury, but not to exceed \$4,000. When weekly payments have been made to the employee prior to his death, the compensation to dependents is payable from the time of the last of such payments, "but shall not continue more than 300 weeks from the date of the injury." (Sec. 12.) However, the law is construed as giving a separate claim for death and for disability, so that where an injured workman died from his injury after having received 15 months' benefits, the widow was held to be still entitled to a full death benefit, presumably if payable within the time limit fixed by the law, without deduction for disability payments made. (Nickerson's case (1926), 133 Atl. 161.)

Burial expenses are paid only in case there are no dependents. (Sec. 13.) Upon the death or remarriage of the widow, unpaid compensation is payable in full to the dependent children.

Section 14 contains the provision that "if the [injured] employee shall die before having received compensation to which he is entitled or which he is receiving as provided in this act, the same shall be payable to the dependents of the said employee for the specified period," they to "have the same rights and powers under this act as the said employee would have had if he had lived." This seems to involve the anomaly of a man permanently totally disabled, obtaining an award for 500 weeks, not over \$6,000 in amount, and dying from another cause, passing to his dependents a larger benefit than if killed by the injury. No decision on this point is at hand, but such appears to be the plain provision of the law.

Maryland

IT IS provided under the Maryland law that where death results from the injury, compensation may continue for so much of 416 weeks after the date of the injury, as remains, subject to a maximum of \$5,000. It is also provided that any compensation payable to any dependent and unpaid at the death of such dependent shall survive and be vested in the surviving dependents, if any, and if none, then the compensation shall cease. Compensation for permanent partial disability, unpaid at the time of his death, survives to and vests in the personal representative of the employee. (Sec. 36.) Funeral allowances are separate from compensation. (Sec. 37.)

Where a mother was awarded compensation for a period of eight years, and at the expiration of less than one-half of this period she died, it was held she had a vested right to the award and that the administrator of her estate could collect the balance of the award to the end of the eight-year period. (*State Accident Fund v. Jacobs* (1922), 140 Md. 622, 118 Atl. 159.)

And where the beneficiaries were a mother and sister of the decedent, sharing equally, the right of the latter to payments after her marriage was affirmed, the court finding no basis in the law for annulling payments to a beneficiary whose status was determined at the time of the employee's death. (*Adleman v. Ocean A. & G. Corp.* (1917), 130 Md. 572, 101 Atl. 529.)

The right of a widow as dependent was held by the court of appeals of the State to be distinct from that of the workman on account of his injury, so that where there were disability payments for 87 weeks, then death from the injury, the widow was held entitled to the full death benefit of \$5,000, payable in $277\frac{7}{9}$ weeks, at \$18 per week, no deduction to be made for the payments to the injured man. (*Sea Gull Specialty Co. v. Snyder* (1926), 134 Atl. 133.) It will be observed that the combined terms of payments fall within the 416 weeks allowed for payment from the date of the injury.

Massachusetts

THE payment of benefits for death under the compensation law of Massachusetts, if preceded by disability benefits paid to the injured employee, dates from the last payment of such benefits, and runs not longer than 400 weeks from the date of the injury, nor more than \$4,000 in all. Payments to a widow terminate on her death or remarriage, adjusted awards becoming payable to the children for the remainder of the period. (Sec. 31.) Expenses of burial are reckoned as part of the compensation payable to dependents. (Sec. 33.)

An award of \$4,000 for death, after disability payments amounting to \$420.57, was modified by the supreme judicial court of the State, holding that "a careful reading of the statute makes plain the purpose of the legislature [by its amendment of 1914] to limit the amount to \$4,000" for both disability and death resulting from the same injury. (*Sinclair's Case* (1924), 248 Mass. 414, 143 N. E. 330.)

When death occurred after an injury causing permanent total disability, an award of a death benefit to the widow and a right as executrix to an award for the term of the disability were affirmed, the latter to terminate at the death as being personal to the injured man, and not for the benefit of his dependents. (*Burns' case* (1914), 218 Mass. 8, 105 N. E. 601.) Where 12 weeks' compensation had been awarded for a schedule injury, death ensuing from the same injury, the payment on the specific award was held not deductible from the death benefit, since permanent partial disability awards are, "in addition to all other compensation," (*in re Nichols* (1914) 217 Mass. 3, 104 N. E. 566); however, this decision would seem to be overthrown by that in *Sinclair's case*, above. Where there was an injury covering loss of use of an arm, entitling the injured man to a specific benefit, and he died some six months later, the claim for the specific injury was held not to survive to his estate in case no steps had been taken by him, there being "nothing in the act which suggests

that an unasserted claim for compensation for specific injuries is a vested right in the employee which passes to his personal representative." (Cherbury's case (1925), 251 Mass. 397, 146 N. E. 683.)

The independence of the claim of the widow from that of the injured employee was in evidence in another aspect where a workman injured by the negligence of a third party compromised with such party, signing a release. This was said to affect in no way the right of the widow to claim compensation from the employer, as her right did not arise until her husband's death, was created for her benefit, and was independent of his control. (In re Cripp (1914), 216 Mass. 586, 104 N. E. 565.) Such an award is not a vested right, however, nor is the claim such a right, so that a sole dependent dying leaves nothing collectible by her personal representative (In re Murphy (1916), 224 Mass. 592, 113 N. E. 283)—a position diametrically opposed to that of the Maryland and Ohio courts. But where a widow died pending negotiations for a lump-sum settlement, right to an award apparently having been determined, her personal representative was held to be entitled to the amount accruing from the date of her husband's injury to the date of her death; at this date a minor child became entitled as dependent, and the board had power to revise the award to the widow accordingly. (In re Bartoni (1916), 225 Mass. 349, 114 N. E. 663.)

Prior to an amendment of 1922, terminating benefits to a widow on her remarriage, such remarriage was held not to affect her right to continued payments, her status as claimant having been fixed at the death of her former husband (In re Bott (1918), 230 Mass. 152, 119 N. E. 755); the same rule was applied where the sole dependent was a minor son, becoming 18 during the term of an award on account of his father's death (Cronin's Case (1919), 234 Mass. 5, 124 N. E. 669). The amendment clarified the status of the children in case of the mother's death or remarriage, as indicated in the opening statement; whether the payments to a child becoming 18 cease at that time under the amended law is not equally clear, though presumably they do (Sec. 31.)

Michigan

THE compensation law of Michigan limits death benefits to a period of 300 weeks from the date of the injury. If the injured workman has been in receipt of disability benefits, they terminate with his death, and if the death was due to the injury an independent right accrues. However, the amount payable thereunder is affected by the prior disability payments, so as "to make the total compensation for the injury and death * * * equal to the full amount which such dependents would have been entitled to receive * * * in case the accident had resulted in immediate death." (Part II, secs. 5, 12.) Burial expenses are an additional allowance. (Part II, sec. 8.) If no compensation had been paid during his lifetime, the dependents of the injured workman were held to be entitled from the date of the accident even though no claim has been made therefor prior to the workman's death. (Pardeick *v.* Iron City Engineering Co. (1922), 220 Mich. 653, 190 N. W. 719.) On the other hand, any settlement or agreement made by the deceased before his death does not affect the claim of the widow or other dependents except in

so far as compensation paid thereunder is to be reckoned in the settlement for death. (Michigan Work. Comp. Cases, 1916, p. 430.) The same rule was held to apply where regular wages were paid between the time of the accident and the time of the death, instead of compensation, the amount being held deductible from the death benefit. (King *v.* Munising Paper Co. (1923), 224 Mich. 691, 195 N. W. 812.)

Questions of dependency and its extent are "determined as of the date of the accident to the employee," and the right to a death benefit "shall become fixed as of such time, irrespective of any subsequent change in conditions." On the death of a beneficiary his proportion goes to surviving dependents *pro rata*. (Part II, sec. 7.) This appears to leave the act subject to the same construction as the earlier form of the Massachusetts law as to the continuance of benefits to a widow after her remarriage, but no case or ruling in point is at hand.

Minnesota

THE Minnesota compensation law provides death benefits up to \$7,500, and that all "payments previously made for compensation for such [fatal] injury shall be deducted from the compensation, if any, due on account of death." Accrued compensation due to the deceased prior to death, but not paid, is payable to such dependent person or legal heir as the industrial commission may order, without probate administration. (Secs. 4274f, 4275.) The allowance for burial expenses is distinct from other benefits.

In case of the remarriage of a widow, if there are no dependent children she receives an adjusted lump-sum settlement; if there are dependent children the unpaid balance otherwise payable to her becomes payable for the use and benefit of the children during dependency.

Missouri

THE compensation law of Missouri of 1925 was suspended by referendum, coming into effect November 16, 1926. It provides that there shall be deducted from any death benefit allowed any compensation which may have been paid to the employee during his lifetime for the injury resulting in his death. Burial expenses are a distinct allowance. (Sec. 21.)

On the death or remarriage of a widow, other dependents, if any, receive the unpaid remainder of a death benefit under the act. (*Ibid.*) Compensation to the injured employee ceases on his death, but any liability accrued and payable at the time of the death, and any accrued and unpaid compensation due him, is to be paid to the dependents without administration, or if none, to a personal representative or other person entitled thereto. The rule is the same whether the death is due to the injury or another cause. (Sec. 20.)

Montana

THE Montana workmen's compensation law provides that if an employee dies from the result of an injury on account of which he received compensation prior to death, "the period during which the death benefit shall be paid shall be reduced by the period during

or for which compensation was paid for the injury." If the employee dies from some other cause, all other liability is terminated. (Sec. 2905.) Benefits are to cease on death, remarriage, or children attaining the age of 18. (Secs. 2891, 2892.) The board reports its construction of the law as permitting the payment of the widow's lapsed benefits to the children, if any, under 18 years.

Funeral benefits are distinct from other allowances. (Sec. 2916.)

Nebraska

THE Nebraska compensation law provides that compensation for death shall be paid dependents during their dependency, not exceeding 350 weeks from the date of the accident causing such injury; but that if compensation was paid the injured employee prior to his death, the death benefit shall be an amount that, added to such payments, will equal the award for death. Funeral expenses are an independent allowance. If the death is due to another cause than the injury, no liability for compensation will accrue after his death, and the death of an employee during a benefit period terminates all liability for the remainder of the payments. (Secs. 3045, 3046.)

If a widow or widower of a deceased employee remarries, then the compensation benefits automatically become payable to the child or children of such widow or widower; but if there are no such children the rights of the widow or widower "shall not be affected by such remarriage"—an unusual provision in compensation statutes. (Sec. 3048.) Payments to children, brothers, or sisters cease on their attaining the age of 18; and where payments terminate as to any person, survivors are to receive such amounts as would have been payable had they been the only persons entitled to compensation at the time of the death of the employee. (Sec. 3047.)

Nevada

THE law of Nevada makes independent provision for disability and for death, but contains no reference to death following a period of disability. The commission construes the act as providing for independent benefits, any compensation paid prior to the death not affecting the award to be made to dependents in case of death. Payment to a widow or dependent widower continues until death or remarriage, two years' compensation being payable to a widow in one sum upon remarriage. In the event of the death of a widow, a child's benefit is increased to 15 per cent if that amount is not already being paid, but in the event of her remarriage it would appear that the original award to the child will not be affected. A child's benefit ceases in the event of death, marriage, or attaining the age of 18 years. The commission may apportion compensation from time to time as it deems for the best interests of all beneficiaries. (Sec. 25a.)

Awards for permanent partial disability are not considered as a vested interest, any amount unpaid at the time of the death from a cause other than the injury not being payable to the dependents, the two classes of claims, i. e., of the injured worker and of his dependents, being independent and not affected the one by the other.

Burial allowances are distinct from other benefits, and are payable not only in case of the death of the employee, but also if a dependent dies before the term of the award in his or her behalf expires.

New Hampshire

THE New Hampshire law provides that any compensation payments to an injured employee shall be deducted from the compensation provided (not over \$3,000) in case death results from the injury. Burial allowances are made only in case there are no dependents. (Sec. 6 (1).) What would take place in the event of the death or remarriage of the widow is not indicated, and in the absence of any State agency to administer the law, no rulings on the subject are available. It is provided that death extinguishes the right of any person to receive compensation (sec. 10), which would militate against any idea of a vested right, but would not presumably adversely affect the rights of children surviving the death of a widow during the compensation period.

New Jersey

THE New Jersey compensation act provides for a death benefit running 300 weeks, or including disability payments, 500 weeks; but if there are then children under 16, payments continue until that age is attained. (Secs. 12k, 14a.) This suggests an independence of the two benefits, funeral expenses being also a separate allowance. Accrued benefits unpaid go to the personal representative, according to a decision by the courts of the State (*Roney v. Griffith Piano Co.* (1925), 131 Atl. 686), the statement being made that "the law is settled" as to this point. Benefits terminate on the death of a beneficiary, on a child attaining the age of 16, and since 1913 on the remarriage of a widow. Prior to an amendment of that date, the fact of remarriage was held not to affect the right to benefits. (*Hansen v. Brann & Stewart Co.* (1917), 90 N. J. L. 444, 103 Atl. 696.) Payments thus terminated would go to the surviving dependents if six or more in number; otherwise the amount payable would be reduced. (Sec. 12.)

In case of the death of an employee from any cause other than the accident, during the period of payments for permanent injury, "the remaining payments" shall be paid to his or her dependents, or if no dependents, the remaining amount due, but not exceeding \$150, shall be paid in a lump sum for funeral expenses. However, if 400 weeks' compensation has been paid the employee for permanent total disability prior to the death, none shall be due to dependents. (Sec. 11z.)

The foregoing provision conferring upon survivors the benefits of unaccrued disability payments was embodied in the law by an amendment of 1913. A man injured under the original act of 1911, and dying before the termination of the payments awarded, was held to pass to his survivors no rights under the law as it then existed; nor would the supreme court sustain a judgment below permitting such an effect, the amendment not being retroactive. (*Erie R. Co. v. Gallaway* (1917), 91 N. J. L. 32, 102 Atl. 6.)

New Mexico

SECTION 17 (a) provides for compensation to dependents to consist of payments of funeral expenses and a percentage of the average weekly earnings, to continue for the period of 300 weeks from the date of the injury. Section 18 fixes the order of awards, death benefits following disability benefits, if any, which is equivalent to deducting such payments from any death award made. Compensation ceases upon the original beneficiary's death, upon adoption, upon reaching the age of 18, unless incapacitated, or upon the remarriage of the widow or widower. (Sec. 12j.)

New York

THE compensation law of New York in the course of its treatment of the subject of vested rights and the survival of claims may be said to epitomize the development of the more liberal ideas on this phase of compensation. Repeated amendments, following awards and judgments found unsatisfactory, now secure to the survivor of an injured workman who has received a specific award the unpaid balance accruing after death from another cause than the injury. (Sec. 15.4.) Since death benefits continue for the lifetime or until the remarriage of a widow or dependent widower (sec. 16), there is no question of the deduction of prior disability payments to the injured employee. Funeral expenses are in addition to other benefits.

Other beneficiaries receive compensation "during dependency," but for children, benefits terminate at the age of 18. Where both a widow and children survive, and the widow remarries or dies, a surviving child under 18 is entitled to an increased compensation; but as the law allows two years' compensation in one sum upon remarriage, it has been held that the increase in the child's compensation will be deferred until the end of the two-year period so as not to raise the percentage basis above the statutory maximum of $66\frac{2}{3}$ per cent of the wages. (*Carlin v. Lockport Paper Co.* (1925), 212 N. Y. S. 65.)

Accrued unpaid benefits due an injured workman at the time of his death are payable to dependents only. An earlier form of the law required payment in such manner if not more than \$250 was accrued. Where a larger amount had accumulated, it was held that the excess above the statutory limit should be paid to the estate instead of the widow. (*McGowan v. Taylor & Co.*, 197 App. Div. 915.) In 1922 the limit of \$250 was stricken out and the present provision adopted. Not only are accrued benefits thus payable and benefits for permanent partial disability maturing after the death of the injured person, but an award for disability may be made after the death of the injured employee. (Sec. 33.)

The independence of the injured workman's claims and those of his dependents after death was emphasized in a case in which an employee was injured by the negligence of a third party and recovered damages therefor in a considerable sum. He later died of his injuries, and a death benefit was sought by the widow. The commission allowed the same over the employer's protest that the case had been closed by the employee's settlement with the third party. It was held that the right of a widow and children arose only at the

time of the death of the injured man, and no act of his could bar their right. (*Solomone v. Degnon Contracting Co.* (1919), 20 S. D. R. 456.)

North Dakota

THE North Dakota workmen's compensation act does not in any way limit the payments made to a widow and dependent children, regardless of how long the decedent received temporary, permanent partial, or permanent total disability compensation prior to death, according to an opinion of the workmen's compensation bureau of the State. No decisions on the subject have been found, but compensation is payable to a widow or widower until death or remarriage. The law provides that in case the widow remarries a lump sum is to be paid to her, minor dependent children not being entitled to any increase in compensation because of her remarriage; but where any other beneficiary ceases to be entitled to benefits, compensation is payable to the remainder the same as if they had been the only dependents. (Sec. 3 G.) Burial expenses are a separate allowance. (Sec. 3 I.)

No provision appears relative to accrued payments or future payments in case of the death from another cause of a person receiving or entitled to disability benefits.

Ohio

IT IS provided in the Ohio compensation law that where compensation has been paid for disability prior to death and death is the result of an injury, it shall be deducted from the term of the award on account of the death, which is limited to eight years from the date of the injury. (Sec. 1465-82.) The allowance for funeral expenses is distinct. (Sec. 1465-89.)

Where a dependent was awarded compensation it was held that the statute does not provide for termination of benefits at the death of the dependent or the cessation of dependency, nor for their termination at the option of the board, but for their continuance when once awarded, until the expiration of the statutory term. "The theory is that when an employee is injured or killed in the course of employment, a sum fixed by law is set off from the [State insurance] fund to compensate him for his injuries, or his dependents for his death, to compensate for taking away the man's right to earn a livelihood, which, but for the accident, he would have earned." The amount is fixed at the date of the death by the statute, not by the board, and is set aside with no provision for rebate. It was therefore held that the administrator could collect the balance of the award on the death of the dependent; nor would payments cease if the dependent should become independent, as payment of the award did not rest on dependency. (*State ex rel. Munding v. Industrial Commission of Ohio* (1915), 92 Ohio St. 434, 111 N. E. 299.)

Where death occurs from another cause than the injury, any accrued unpaid benefits may, in the discretion of the commission, be paid to dependents, or for services in connection with the last

illness of the employee. (Sec. 1465-83.) This suggests the discontinuance of such benefits as of the date of the death, but the section is somewhat lacking in clearness.

Oklahoma

THE constitution of Oklahoma precludes the possibility of any provision limiting the amount recoverable in case of death. The compensation law of the State therefore is restricted to non-fatal injuries, and no provision appears in regard to the survival to the family or to the personal representative of any amount that might remain unpaid on a specific award in the event of the death of the injured employee from another cause. Indeed, it is said that the act is "to afford to the employee a special procedure under which to maintain his action where the injuries do not result in death. After the death his representatives may maintain their action, but not under the compensation act." (Lahoma Oil Co. v. State Industrial Commission (1918), 71 Okla. 160, 175 Pac. 836.) In the same case it was said that the statutory provision for total disability adjudged to be permanent is an award for not more than 500 weeks, with "no provision for payment of an award in the event of the death of the employee."

Oregon

ACCORDING to the State industrial accident commission, no deductions are made from an award for death of prior paid compensation where death ensued as a result of the injury; neither are any deductions made for temporary or permanent partial disability. The expense of burial is independent of other allowances. Minor children are not entitled to the balance of an award which would have been paid to a widow upon her remarriage, when she receives "once and for all a lump sum equal to 10 times her monthly allowance," that is, \$300, the monthly allowance of a widow being \$30; but an original allowance is made for dependent minor children of the deceased workman at the rate of \$8 a month until they reach the age of 16 years. In case of the death of the mother, leaving minor orphans, this rate is increased to \$15 per month until the boys reach the age of 16 and the girls reach the age of 18 years. (Sec. 6626 (a).)

In case of the death of an injured workman during a period of total disability, "whatever the cause of death, leaving a widow, invalid widower or child under the age of 16 years," the same benefits are allowable as in case of death from injury; (sec. 6626 (c)), and where a workman dies during the term of a specific award, payments continue for the period of such award, payable to the beneficiaries under the law in case of death. (Sec. 6626 (f).)

Pennsylvania

THE Pennsylvania compensation law provides for death benefits for a maximum period of 300 weeks, including the period of prior disability payments, if any. Compensation to beneficiaries ceases upon death, remarriage, or a child attaining the age of 16

years, except that the widow is to receive upon remarriage a lump sum equal to "the then value of the compensation payable to her during one-third of the [remaining] period," with a maximum limitation of 100 weeks. The allowance for burial expense is distinct from other benefits. When the right of any beneficiary ceases, the compensation to those remaining becomes as though they were the only original dependents. This applies in case of the remarriage of the widow as well as in the event of her death; children under 16 at the expiration of the 300-week period allowed for the widow also receive newly adjusted awards. (Sec. 307.) Nor does a commutation of the payments to a widow who dies during the compensation period affect the rights of the child to its statutory award. (*Angello v. P. & R. R. Co.* (1921), 6 Board Dec. 157.) However, where there was a partial commutation involving a reduction of the amount of weekly payments for the remainder of the 300 weeks' period, and the widow remarried before the expiration thereof, no increase could be made in the amounts allowed the children until the termination of the 300 weeks. (*Lucas v. Ellsworth Collieries Co.* (1922), 7 Board Dec. 310.)

If the death of an injured employee was due to some other cause than the injury, all rights to compensation cease (sec. 306); and it was at one time ruled by the State compensation board that, even where death resulted from the injury, neither the dependents nor the personal representative of the deceased employee could institute an action to recover the compensation which was accrued at the time of the death of the workman, but which had been unpaid. (*Kinley v. Penn. R. Co.*, 5 Board Dec. 272.) It was here said that the dependents had a new and independent right, and it is presumable that, in the absence of a prior award, they would receive the full 300 weeks' benefits. However, later decisions by the board are to the effect that accrued unpaid benefits are, in such cases, to go to the personal representative. This rule was applied in a case in which an employee, apparently without dependents, died from another cause than the injury, having due him a sum accrued on account of an award for total disability for an indefinite period, no payments having been made thereon (*Smith v. Mitchell Lumber Co.* (1925), 10 Board Dec. 3); also in a case where a widow entitled to benefits on account of the death of her husband died without having received benefits for the interval between his death and hers, about 20 months. The board ruled that the personal representative was entitled to the amount "due the estate of the deceased widow covering a period from 14 days after the death of her husband to her death." There was a child surviving, and his right as an orphan accrued at once on his mother's death, so that he was entitled to the same amount as if he had been the only person entitled to compensation at the time of the death of his father. (*Butala v. Wachna Coal Co.*, 10 Board Dec. 24.)

In the foregoing cases the employer contended that the death of the employee extinguished compensation payments, referring to the provision that payments to a dependent "cease" in the event of death, remarriage, etc. The repeated claims led to a full discussion of the subject in *Gidos v. Fayette Coal Co.* (1925), 10 Board Dec. 29, where compensation had been paid to a widow for nearly four years, then withheld for 8 months, when she died. "The payer wants to

keep the money so withheld." The court denied this contention, saying that "it would be a curious twist of the statute" to permit default to avoid liability, while an employer paying promptly would be penalized by the relative burden assumed by his compliance with the law.

Porto Rico

PORTO RICO is one of the few jurisdictions which provide for death benefits to be paid in a lump sum. This ranges from \$1,000 to \$4,000, according to decedent's earning capacity, the number and relationship of dependents, and their conditions and necessities. The commission may grant a pension instead of a lump sum in its discretion. (Sec. 3 A, 5, 6.)

There is no provision in the Porto Rico compensation law providing for deductions of prior paid compensation when death ensues as a result of the injury, nor has any case been found dealing with such circumstances; neither does any provision appear covering the case of the death of a workman from another cause while in receipt of schedule benefits. Expenses of burial are not provided for.

Rhode Island

SECTION 1217 provides that if death results from the injury, persons wholly dependent shall receive compensation for a period of 300 weeks from the date of the injury; but when weekly payments have been made to an injured employee prior to death, the compensation to dependents begins from the date of the last of such payments. The inference is clear that payments made prior to death are deductible from the death benefit awarded to the employee's dependents.

Where a father and mother were awarded separate sums as partial dependents on a son, and the mother died, there was held to be no vested right on which the administrator could base a claim for the remaining portion of her award (*Duffney v. Morse Lumber Co.* (1919), 42 R. I. 260, 107 Atl. 225); but where a widow was awarded \$10 per week for 300 weeks and died during the period, payments were continued to two dependent sons, \$5 weekly to each. On the death of one his payments were terminated, but on an action by the surviving brother it was held that the entire amount payable to a dependent should have been paid to him and it was so ordered. (*Gallagher v. United Electric Rys. Co.* (1926), 134 Atl. 8.)

There was no mention in the original compensation act regarding the remarriage of a widow, and the supreme court of the State held that the question of the dependency of a widow is fixed as of the death of her husband, so that subsequent remarriage is ineffective to modify an award made on the basis of such condition. (*Newton v. Rhode Island Co.* (1919), 42 R. I. 58, 105 Atl. 363.) However, an amendment of 1926 provides that upon the remarriage of the widow, "the compensation theretofore payable to such widow shall cease and determine." (Sec. 1217.) In view of the language of the law making all payments to the widow, varying with the number of children, it would seem that the remarriage terminated all payments.

Section 1226 provides that all payments of compensation "shall cease upon the death of the employee from a cause other than or

not induced by the injury for which he is receiving compensation." Burial expenses are payable only in case there are no dependents. (Sec. 1220.)

South Dakota

THE maximum payment in case of death is four times the average annual earnings of the employee, not to exceed \$3,000. "Any compensation payments other than necessary medical, surgical or hospital fees or services shall be deducted in ascertaining the amount payable on death." (Sec. 9458.1.) This seems adequately specific, but it is again provided that where total disability is permanent, and compensation has been awarded therefor, if the injured man dies as the result of the injury before the amount payable as a death benefit is exhausted, such remainder goes to the dependents or to a personal representative to be distributed according to the terms of the act. (Sec. 9459.) So also in the case of the remarriage of a widow with dependent children, any unpaid balance otherwise due her is to be paid to the children. (Sec. 9458.7.)

No provision of the law or construction of court appears with reference to cases of death from another cause than the injury during the term of any award. Allowance for burial expenses is made only when no dependents survive. (Sec. 9458.)

Tennessee

IT IS specifically provided in the Tennessee compensation act (section 28 (f)) that if death results from an accidental injury sustained in the course of the employment, or during a period of disability caused by such injury if death results proximately therefrom, "all payments previously made as compensation for such injury shall be deducted from the compensation, if any, due on account of death."

It is also provided (section 30 (9)) that the dependency of a widow or widower of a deceased employee and dependent children shall terminate with the remarriage of the widow, except a child physically or mentally incapacitated from earning "and the dependence of such a child shall terminate with the age of 18."

An uncommon provision is one that terminates payments to an employee permanently totally disabled who becomes an inmate of a public institution; if there are dependents, however, payments go to them the same as if the employee were deceased. (Sec. 28 (d).) Payments to a widow with children vary with the number of children, but no provision appears to have been made for readjustment in the case of a child attaining noncompensable age. Payment to any dependent ceases on death or marriage. (Sec. 30 (14).) No provision appears as to cases of death of an injured workman receiving specific benefits if the death is from another cause than the compensated injury. Burial expenses are allowed in addition to other benefits.

Texas

THE Texas compensation law provides that in case death occurs as the result of an injury after a period of total or partial incapacity for which compensation has been paid, the period of

incapacity shall be deducted from the total period of compensation, and the benefits paid thereunder from the maximum allowed for the death. (Art. 5246-16.) The allowance for burial is to be deducted from compensation awarded. (Art. 5246-17.)

In the case of *Consolidated Underwriters v. Saxon* (1924), 265 S. W. 143, an employee died as the result of injury, and the industrial accident board awarded compensation to his widow and children for a period of 360 weeks beginning with the date of the injury, practically merging the decedent's claim for disability, which he had not enforced, and that of the widow and children for the death of the husband and father.

Rights of beneficiaries are determined by the facts as they exist at the date of the death of the injured workman, and are "complete, absolute and vested." Awards are to be apportioned according to the law of descent and distribution of the State (art. 5246-15)—a provision that seems to take the place of the customary provisions as to the effect of death and marriage on the rights of beneficiaries. Thus, it was held that a death benefit is a vested right capable of being passed by the will of the beneficiary, where a dependent father and mother were claimants, and the father died before the determination of the action. (*Texas Employers' Ins. Assn. v. McDonnell* (1925), 278 S. W. 294.) The right extends to future as well as to accrued payments, and an administrator is entitled to act with regard thereto for the benefit of the heirs. (*Moore v. Lumbermen's Reciprocal Assn.* (1924), 255 S. W. 1051.)

Utah

THE Utah compensation law provides compensation for disability for a maximum period of six years, and a maximum benefit of \$5,000; if death results from the injury, benefits run for such portion of six years from the date of the injury as remains after the death. (Secs. 3138, 3140.) It is also provided that compensation ceases on the death or marriage of dependents, and where the widow remarries, she is entitled to a lump-sum settlement. (Sec. 3141.) Disability benefits terminate with the death of the injured workman (sec. 3138); and where an employee, who would have been entitled to compensation for a specified number of weeks if he had lived, died from causes unconnected with the injury before he was awarded compensation, it was held that the administrator of his estate was not entitled to such compensation, since the right was personal and not a right that had been vested in the employee immediately upon his injury, so that nothing passed to his estate upon his death. (*Heiselt Construction Co. v. Industrial Commission of Utah* (1921), 56 Utah 59, 197 Pac. 599.)

Allowance for burial is an independent award.

Vermont

THE compensation law of Vermont provides specifically that if death results from an injury within two years, and in case a period of disability precedes the death, it "shall be deducted from the total periods of compensation" named in the act. Burial expenses are a separate allowance. (Secs. 5777, 5782.) The effect

of this is that even where burial expenses have been paid, separate claim must be made for compensation as such, and the statute of limitation will bar a claim tardily brought. (*Barber v. Estey Organ Co.* (1926), 135 Atl. 1.)

Compensation benefits awarded any beneficiary cease upon death, remarriage or reaching the age of 18 years, and when the right of any beneficiary ceases, the compensation of the surviving dependents becomes the same as if they were the only original dependents. (Sec. 5779.) In case an injured workman dies from another cause than the injury while in receipt of benefits for a specified period, remaining payments are to go to his dependents. (Sec. 5783.)

Virginia

THE Virginia compensation law provides that if death results from an accident within six years, compensation may be granted for 300 weeks from the date of the injury, and in addition an allowance for burial expenses. If disability payments have been made to the injured workman prior to his death, payments to dependents "shall begin from the date of the last of such payments." (Sec. 39.) Thus, where an employee received an injury from which he died about two months later the State commission awarded compensation for the statutory period less the number of weeks for which compensation had already been paid by the insurance carrier. (*Patton v. Winchester Cold Storage Co.*, Opinions of Industrial Commission, 1921, p. 598.)

When an employee entitled to compensation for partial disability included in the specific schedule dies from another cause than the injury, the balance of the disability award is to be paid to the dependents. (Sec. 38.) It is further provided that compensation to a widow or widower terminates upon remarriage, but in case there are other dependents the compensation passes to them. (Sec. 40.)

Washington

THE compensation law of Washington differs from that of most States in that it prescribes a specific sum monthly to the surviving spouse in case of the death of a husband or wife in an industrial accident. Such payments are to cease "at the end of the month in which remarriage shall occur." The same payments are to be made if the injured employee dies during a period of permanent total disability, "whatever the cause of death," if a widow, invalid widower, or child under 16 survives. A widow remarrying receives a lump sum of \$240, but the additional allowances fixed by the law for each child of the deceased continue without modification by reason of such remarriage. (Sec. 7679a, c.) There is an independent allowance for burial.

Specific awards on account of permanent partial disabilities are compensated by the payment of fixed sums, which are apparently regarded as a purely personal right, since where a workman secured an award in a lump sum for injury to an eye, but was killed in an independent accident before the warrant for payment was issued, the widow and children were held to have no interest in the sum awarded for the loss of the eye, but only in the benefits provided for the death

due to the accidental injury. (*Zahler v. Department of Labor and Industries* (1925), 125 Wash. 410, 217 Pac. 55.) An administratrix was said to have no interest in an award to the decedent on account of a permanent partial disability for which an award had been made but no warrant issued prior to the death from another cause. (*Ray v. Ind. Ins. Com.* (1918), 99 Wash. 176, 168 Pac. 1121.)

West Virginia

AS IN Washington, payments to dependent beneficiaries are fixed sums, the widow or widower to have \$30 monthly until death or remarriage, and each child under 16 years an independent allotment of \$5 monthly until death or attainment of the age of 16. A widow or widower remarrying receives a lump-sum commutation, without affecting the rights of the child. (Sec. 33.) Funeral expenses are a distinct allowance. (Sec. 29.)

Schedule injuries entitle to compensation "payable only to the injured employee, and the right thereto shall not vest in his or her estate." However, any compensation accrued to the date of death is to be paid to dependents, if any. (Sec. 31.)

Where a minor contributes to the support of a dependent parent and is accidentally killed, an award to the dependent father is to be continued to his surviving widow, the mother of the deceased employee, in case of the father's death during the compensation period, but in case of the death of both parents, the compensation ceases. (Sec. 33(b).)

Wisconsin

THE law of Wisconsin limits a death benefit to a sum equal to four times the average annual earnings, but which, when added to any disability indemnity received, shall not exceed the maximum amount payable for permanent total disability. This implies a limitation calling for a deduction from the total amount in case any part of the sum that would occasion such excess has been paid to the decedent as a disability benefit prior to his death. (Sec. 102.09(3).) This would seem to be the view adopted in the case, *City of Milwaukee v. Industrial Commission* (1915), 160 Wis. 238, 151 N. W. 247, where an amount paid to a decedent during the interval between the injury and the death, some months later, was held deductible from the death benefits awarded the widow. The expense of burial is a separate allowance. (Sec. 102.09(4n).)

Where an injury causes permanent total disability and death occurs from another cause, the compensation payable is the same as if the death had been due to the injury; and where there is an award for permanent partial disability, the fixed allowance is a vested right to which the dependents are entitled (Sec. 102.09(4)), the law providing for such disposition, though it "might have properly become a part of his estate," subject to administration as other property. (*City of Milwaukee v. Roth* (1924), 185 Wis. 307, 201 N. W. 251.) In this case it was held that the death of a man entitled to permanent partial disability benefits, and receiving temporary total disability benefits at the time of his death from another cause had a vested right to both forms of compensation. "His death from a

cause other than the injury merely cut off the possibility of further payment to him but did not cut off or extinguish the right that he had to compensation." An award was not necessary to the establishment of this right, since it only determines the amount, the right to compensation being fixed by the statute. And if the death is due to an independent compensable injury, this does not affect the vested right to a permanent partial disability benefit. (Klug & Smith *v.* Kreiner (1925), 188 Wis. 422, 206 N. W. 53.)

While the statute correlates the death benefit with disability indemnity to the extent of limiting the sum total to a permanent total disability benefit, the rights of the injured workman and those of the dependent are separate and distinct, so that a settlement by the injured workman on the basis of a presumed temporary disability, death subsequently ensuing from the same injury, had no effect on the claim of the dependent widow. (Milwaukee Coke & Gas Co. *v.* Industrial Commission (1915), 160 Wis. 247, 151 N. W. 245.) The court here held that two distinct claims were initiated by the injury, one belonging to the workman and the other, accruing only upon his death, belonging to the dependents, over which he had no control.

Questions of dependency are determined as of the date of the accident, and the right of any dependent to benefits "shall become fixed as of such time, irrespective of any subsequent change of conditions," any balance unpaid at the time of the death of any beneficiary to go to his personal representative. (Sec. 102.11 (5).)

Wyoming

INASMUCH as death benefits under the Wyoming compensation act are lump-sum payments, no question of succession can arise. A widow or invalid widower is to receive \$2,000, and each child a fixed amount. If the injured workman is in receipt of temporary total disability benefits, and dies from the results of the injuries, any sum received by him in excess of \$2,400 is to be deducted proportionately from the lump amounts to be paid to the surviving widow and to the guardian of the children. (Sec. 4334 (d).) The allowance for burial is distinct.

Permanent total disability benefits exceed those allowed for death, and are likewise payable in a lump sum; but where an award had been made to a workman adjudged permanently totally disabled, his death ensuing before the issue of the warrant, the administratrix was held not to be entitled to the benefits of the award. (La Chapelle *v.* Union Pac. Coal Co. (1922), 29 Wyo. 449, 214 Pac. 587.)

United States

DEATH benefits are payable to widows or dependent widowers, according to fixed percentages, with additional percentages for each child under 18 years of age up to the maximum. Payments to widows or widowers continue until death or remarriage, and to a child until death, marriage, or reaching the age of 18. On the cessation of compensation to any person, other beneficiaries are entitled to such amounts as they would have received if they had been the only

persons entitled to compensation at the time of the decedent's death. (Sec. 10.) Allowance for burial is a separate benefit. (Sec. 11.)

This law is one of the very small number that does not provide fixed benefits for specific injuries. Inasmuch as there is no fixed maximum either in time or amount for a death benefit, the question of deductions from death benefits on account of prior disability payments does not arise.

Recent Workmen's Compensation Reports

Maryland

THE eleventh annual report of the Industrial Accident Commission of Maryland covers the year ending October 31, 1925.

There were 13,392 employers insured under the terms of the compensation law during the year and 38,983 accidents were reported, an increase of 11 over the preceding year. The commission disposed of 14,306 claims, of which 161 were in fatal cases. Payments made during the year or outstanding on specific awards and in accordance with awards made within the period amounted to \$2,290,220. This total does not include payments awarded for temporary total disability cases running beyond the year of the report. The amounts awarded in fatal cases aggregated \$455,678, in permanent total cases \$20,000, and in permanent partial cases \$274,148. Payments during the year on account of temporary injuries amounted to \$830,008.

The claims submitted were, for fatal cases, 100; for permanent total disability, 4; for permanent partial disability, 578; and for temporary total disability, 13,239.

The commission held 976 formal hearings. The issues raised numbered 1,971. The question most often occurring was as to whether the injury arose out of and in the course of the employment (389 cases), closely followed by questions as to the nature and extent of the disability (374 cases).

Tables presented give the number of employers insured, classified by industries; claims disallowed and reasons therefor; nature of injuries causing permanent partial disability; tables of administrative details, as hearings, reports, claims, etc.; claims classified according to industry; payments by insurance companies; classifications according to average weekly wage, age, and sex; mechanical sources of injury; nonmechanical sources of injury; nature of injury; location of injury; occupation; and a summary of the dependents in fatal cases.

The State of Maryland maintains an accident fund in competition with other insurance carriers. Of the 13,239 claims reported paid by insurance companies the State fund was the carrier in 1,221 cases of temporary total disability, 72 cases of permanent partial disability, and 18 fatal cases. The only company that exceeded this amount was the Maryland Casualty Co., with 1,342 temporary total and 71 permanent partial disability cases, and 14 fatalities. The next company in rank reported 948 temporary total, 43 permanent partial, and 1 permanent total disability cases, and 3 deaths. Self-

insurers cared for 2,977 temporary total, 123 permanent partial, 2 permanent total disability cases, and 31 deaths.

The condition of the State fund is satisfactory, the surplus amounting to \$460,000, the amount of \$8,491 having been added during the year. The assets also increased nearly \$46,000, premiums increasing over \$60,000 above the previous year. The expense ratio, including reinsurance and administrative expenses of all kinds, was 13 per cent. "This is about one-third of the average expense ratio of the private insurance carriers of compensation insurance."

Nebraska

THE Commissioner of Labor of Nebraska is charged with the administration of the compensation act of that State. His twentieth biennial report gives an account of the operations under the compensation act for the year 1925, together with a summary of the accidents, compensation, etc., for the 11 years of the history of the law.

The number of accidents reported in 1925 was the largest in the history of the act, 17,074, as against 15,035 for the preceding calendar year. The amount of medical and hospital benefits paid was \$319,807, and of compensation for injuries, \$623,043, a total of \$942,850.

The foregoing totals include payments by self-insurers as well as those by the insurance companies. Premiums collected by insurance companies for the year 1925 amounted to \$1,330,031, while losses paid by the companies aggregated \$877,850, leaving \$452,181 gross profits. For the 11 years of the history of the act, the insurance department of the State reports premiums collected to the amount of \$8,695,190 and losses paid to the amount of \$4,800,692, gross profits amounting to \$3,894,498, or 44.8 per cent of the amount of premiums collected. The report notes "the recent bankruptcy of a mutual insurance company that had for years written a large volume of compensation insurance in Nebraska." This incident was the occasion of numerous inquiries as to actual expenditures and their objects by the insurance companies, but the department found itself prevented by lack of funds from furnishing the information desired. It earnestly recommends that steps be taken to secure the necessary appropriation for the purpose "of determining whether or not the burdensome premiums collected for compensation insurance from Nebraska employers are justified."

While the companies paid the amounts above stated for 15,390 accidents, in 1925, 57 self-insuring employers paid out \$146,864 for 1,578 accidents, and for 106 accidents uninsured employers were obliged to pay from their own resources \$14,759 in compensation and other benefits.

The report presents no accident statistics other than the above totals. Separate accounts are given of each of 34 fatal cases and of each permanent disability case, as to which the report states that "in all probability most of these claims will continue for life." Some 80 pages are given to individual accounts of contested compensation cases.

Wisconsin

THE Industrial Commission of Wisconsin presents in its April-May, 1926, issue of the publication, Wisconsin Labor Statistics, a review of the compensable injuries for the year 1925. The total number of injuries settled was 21,137, of which 244 were fatal, 9 caused permanent total disability and 1,769 caused permanent partial disability. Weighting deaths and permanent total disabilities on a basis of 6,000 days' time loss, the injuries covered caused a time loss of 3,233,332 days. Total indemnity was paid amounting to \$3,490,021, besides \$1,100,852 for medical aid.

There were 282 cases of occupational disease, 10 resulting fatally and 3 causing permanent partial disability. The lost time attributed to this group of disabilities was 69,722 days, indemnity being paid to the amount of \$59,146 and medical aid, \$13,186.

In the 244 fatal cases, 5 were compromised without funeral benefits while in 239 such benefits were allowed to the amount of \$45,116. This suggests that the maximum allowance of \$200 was quite frequently granted.

Accidents attributed to machinery numbered 3,595 or 17 per cent of all compensable cases. Handling objects was the most prolific cause of injury, 5,107 cases being attributed to this cause. The next was falls of persons, with 2,807 cases; next, hand tools, with 1,641; and stepping on or striking against objects, with 1,503. Falling objects caused 1,202 injuries, no other source being responsible for as many as 1,000 injuries. Of injuries due to machinery, 1,228 were charged to metal-working machines and 1,028 to woodworking machines, the two constituting more than two-thirds of the total number covered.

A detailed table gives an analysis of all compensable injuries in cases closed during the calendar year, by cause and by nature of injury. Thus, there were 45 cases of loss of arm above the elbow, of which 14 were due to machinery and 6 to handling objects; 48 cases of loss of arm at the elbow, of which 15 were due to machinery and 6 to handling objects; 95 cases of loss of hand, of which 31 were due to machinery and 13 to handling objects; 150 cases of loss of thumb, of which 82 were due to machinery and 33 to handling objects; 719 cases of loss of a single finger, of which 417 were due to machinery and 159 to handling objects.

Of the total number of temporary disabilities, 6,459 continued from one to two weeks and 12,656 for more than two weeks. The average indemnity cost per case was \$165 and the average medical cost \$52. The highest average indemnity cost was an average of \$1,412 in 8 cases of injuries due to milling machines; 77 cases of injury due to electricity called for an average indemnity of \$1,158. The average number of days lost per case, using the basis of weighting as above set forth, was 152.9 in 1925. This contrasts with an average loss of 122.3 days in 1924 and 191.4 in 1919, the highest for any year. For temporary disabilities the average number of days lost per case was 24.9 in 1925 as against 27.3 in 1924, the highest for any year.

Very uniformly, 90 per cent of all compensable cases are temporary injuries. During the past 11 calendar years, the commission settled 168,416 temporary disability cases involving 4,186,231 working-days' time loss, or an average of 24.86 working-days per case.

Decree Regulating Peruvian Workmen's Compensation Law¹

THE Peruvian workmen's compensation law covers workers in the following industries or occupations: (1) Mines, quarries, and salt works where more than 35 persons are employed; (2) the construction, repair, and maintenance of buildings, railway lines, bridges, and roads; (3) the installation, repair, and removal of gas and electrical equipment and lightning rods as well as telegraph and telephone systems; (4) transportation operations by land or sea, and agricultural pursuits provided mechanical power is used; (5) loading and unloading; (6) industrial establishments in which mechanical power is used.

Compensation must be paid by the employer for all industrial accidents occurring to the worker which arise out of and in the course of the employment, if the latter's wages do not exceed 120 Peruvian pounds² a year. Accidents shown to have been intentionally brought about by the injured person are not compensable.

Compensation Benefits

THE compensation scale is based upon the earnings of the injured employee.

Death.—If the accident causes the worker's death the employer shall pay toward the funeral expenses an amount equal to two months' earnings of the deceased and, in addition, compensation to the specified relatives, as follows: (1) To the surviving spouse, a life annuity equal to 11 per cent of the yearly wage of the deceased. (2) To the legitimate or illegitimate children an annuity, equally divided, of 22 per cent of the deceased parent's yearly wage until they become 16 years of age, or if incapacitated for work, an equal annuity for life. If no spouse survives, the annuity may be raised to 33 per cent of the parent's yearly wage. (3) In the absence of children the direct descendants entirely dependent upon the deceased are to receive annuities, the total of which may not exceed 22 per cent of the annual wage. (4) Failing the above-mentioned relatives, to ascendants dependent upon the deceased, individual life annuities of 15 per cent, the total of which may not exceed 30 per cent.

Whenever a fatal compensable injury is suffered by an employee who has no survivors entitled to the compensation or if the compensation is not claimed within a year after the death, it shall be turned over to a charitable institution designated by the Government. The same procedure shall be followed in the case of foreign laborers who leave no heirs in the country and with whose countries there is no international reciprocal agreement.

Permanent total disability.—The total loss of both eyes, of both arms, of both hands, of both legs, of both feet, of one arm and one foot, of one leg and one eye, or incurable mental illness shall constitute permanent total disability.

¹ Peru. *El Peruano*, Lima, Peru, June 10, 1924; and *Legislacion Obrera*, by Juan Angulo Puente Arnao, Lima, 1917, pp. 149-168.

² Pound at par=\$4.87; exchange is approximately \$3.55.

If employers wish to pay the compensation benefits in a lump sum the payments will be subject to the following scale, contained in the regulative decree, which shows the degrees of disability for specified injuries expressed in percentages of total disability:

	Per cent of incapacity
Total loss of:	
Arm (right or left)	60
Forearm (right or left)	60
Hand (right or left)	60
Thumb (right or left)	30
Two phalanges of right	18
Two phalanges of left	9
One phalanx only	6
Index finger (right)	24
Index finger (left)	18
One phalanx only	6
Middle finger	9
One phalanx only	6
Ring finger	9
One phalanx only	6
Little finger	13
One phalanx only	6
Thigh	60
Leg	60
Foot	50
Toe	6
Sight, one eye	40
Hearing, both ears	42
Hearing, one ear	12
Hernia:	
Inguinal or double crural	18
Inguinal or simple crural	12

If the employer does not pay the injured worker the lump-sum benefit he shall pay him a life annuity equivalent to 33 per cent of his yearly wages for permanent total disability.

Permanent partial disability.—In case of permanent partial disability the injured worker receives a life annuity equal to 33 per cent of his wage loss due to his disability.

Temporary disability.—For temporary total disability the worker receives compensation during his disability equal to 33 per cent of his earnings and for temporary partial disability the benefit equals one-half the employee's wage loss, until he has completely recovered.

Compensation benefits are to be increased one-half when the accident takes place in an establishment which lacks safety devices and other precautionary measures to avoid accidents.

Demands for revision of compensation may be made by either party within three years.

Employers may transfer the burden of paying compensation by insuring their workers in authorized insurance companies.

Polish Study of Social Insurance Costs¹

A RECENT investigation has been made by the Social Insurance Division of the Ministry of Labor and Social Insurance of Poland into the cost of social insurance in that country as compared with such costs in certain countries which are its chief competitors.

The unification of Polish social insurance legislation, which has been going on systematically for 5 years or more, has not been completely accomplished. Because of the different degrees of development of social insurance in various parts of Poland, separate statistics were secured for former Austrian, Prussian, and Russian territory and for Polish Upper Silesia.

The sickness insurance act of 1920 is applicable to all Poland except Upper Silesia, where the German law is in operation. The amended German Insurance Code of 1911 regulates accident insurance in Upper Silesia and the former Prussian territory, while the newly adapted Austrian law of 1888 governs such insurance in the former Austrian and Russian territory.

In the former Prussian section of Upper Silesia invalidity, old-age, and survivors' insurance is applicable to both manual and non-manual workers but in the territory which was formerly under Austrian jurisdiction only the nonmanual workers have the benefit of this kind of insurance. Unemployment insurance, the latest form of social insurance to be inaugurated in Poland, covers the personnel of commercial and industrial undertakings employing five or more wage earners.

In the report of this Polish inquiry comparisons are made of (1) insurance contributions and wages; (2) absolute amounts of contributions for insurance; (3) insurance costs per inhabitant and the relations of these costs to national incomes; (4) total labor costs, including wages and employers' contributions to insurance; and (5) social insurance costs, production cost, and selling prices.

Rates of Insurance Contributions and Wages

CONTRIBUTIONS for insurance in relation to wages were computed for each of the four different sections of Poland and separate statistics are presented in the report for large-scale industry, mining, handicrafts, and agriculture. In the table below the contributions for large-scale industry in Poland are compared with those for three other countries:

PER CENT OF WAGES PAID FOR SOCIAL INSURANCE IN LARGE-SCALE INDUSTRY

Country	Employer's share	Insured person's share	Total contribution
Poland:			
Former Prussian territory	9.8	5.3	15.1
Upper Silesia	7.5	6.5	14.0
Former Russian and Austrian territories	8.0	3.5	11.5
Germany	8.0	8.0	16.0
Czechoslovakia	7.0	5.0	12.0
Austria	8.3	9.0	17.3

¹ International Labor Office. Industrial and Labor Information, Geneva, Nov. 1, 1926, pp. 217-223. Summary of the charge on production in respect of social insurance in Poland and abroad. A comparative study, Warsaw, 1926 (in Polish).

It would seem from the above figures that in Poland the total rates of contribution are not so high as in Austria and Germany.

Amount of Insurance Contributions

AS THERE is a great variation in wage rates in different countries even in the same branches of industry, the absolute amounts of insurance contributions are also given in the report. These calculations were made for certain branches of industry and also for industry as a whole.

The average annual expenditure per insured person for all branches of insurance, for industry as a whole, were as follows:

	Zloty ¹
Former Prussian territory	96. 24
Upper Silesia	163. 28
Former Austrian territory	105. 17
Former Russian territory	121. 00
Germany	239. 44
Czechoslovakia	161. 50
Austria	184. 64
Great Britain	241. 59

Insurance Costs Per Inhabitant and in Relation to National Income

IN COUNTRIES where the national income is derived to a large extent from the wage-earners' work, the insurance burden will be heavier than in countries with national incomes drawn from other sources. Subject to this reserve, the following estimates made by the Polish investigators indicate that Poland's burden for social insurance in relation to national income is lighter than that of the other countries included in the comparison:

For Poland the total annual expenditure is calculated at 313.7 million zloty or 11 zloty per inhabitant, and 3.1 per cent of a national revenue estimated at 10,000 million zloty. In the total expenditure is included that incurred on account of insurance against sickness, accident, invalidity and old age, and unemployment, as well as miners' insurance.

In Germany the total annual expenditure is estimated at 2,723 million reichsmarks, or 45 per inhabitant, which represents 9.07 per cent of a national income estimated at 30,000 million reichsmarks.

In the case of Czechoslovakia, the total annual charge is reckoned to be about 2,000 million Czech crowns, or 140 Czech crowns per inhabitant, including therein the cost of sickness and accident insurance, pension insurance for nonmanual workers, miners' insurance, and the contributions of the State to unemployment insurance, but without including charges arising out of the new law on invalidity, old-age, and survivors' insurance for manual workers, which came into operation on July 1, 1926.

In the case of Austria, the Polish study calculates the total expenditure at 224.8 million schillings, or 35 schillings per inhabitant.

The annual cost in Great Britain for sickness and invalidity insurance, for unemployment insurance, industrial accident compensation, and noncontributory old-age pensions, is estimated at £128.76 million, or 3 per cent of a national income, which is estimated at £3.9 thousand million.

¹ Rate of exchange, Mar. 1, 1926: 1 mark=1.858 zloty; 100 Czech crowns=23.1283 zloty; 100 Austrian schillings=110.0733 zloty; £1=37.9853 zloty. Zloty at par=19.3 cents; exchange rate for March, 1926=12.7 cents.

Total Labor Costs

THE Polish investigators combine the wage for a 48-hour week of a skilled and of an unskilled worker in the metal industry with the contribution of the employer for social insurance and arrive at the following total labor cost (wages and employer's share of insurance contribution), based on the exchange rates of December, 1925:

	Skilled worker (zloty) ¹	Unskilled worker (zloty)
Warsaw	43.89	25.92
Lodz	36.23	22.81
Poznan	36.17	26.35
Berlin	102.92	69.88
Prague	75.82	44.69
Vienna	65.70	49.24
London	143.41	100.76

The substantially lower labor costs in the metal industry in the Polish cities are brought out conspicuously in this comparison.

Social Insurance Costs, Production Costs, and Selling Price

THE percentage which social insurance charges constitute of production costs was found to be subject to great variation from one branch of industry to another, such percentage reaching its peak in mining and sinking into comparative insignificance in agriculture. Furthermore, this percentage was found to be variable in coal production, even from district to district in Poland. The report also includes figures illustrating the slight effect social insurance charges have on the selling prices of coal.

Conclusions

IN THE judgment of the investigators, it would seem that the complaints regarding the heavy charges on production in Poland because of social insurance are not justified. These costs were found to be light in comparison with the value of the product and to play an insignificant part among the diverse factors upon which depend Poland's position in foreign markets. Indeed, "the production of coal on which the burden of social insurance is heaviest is precisely that which enables Poland to compete with the greatest success on the international market."

It is pointed out that a very substantial decrease in social insurance rates would result in a fall of only 1 or possibly 1½ per cent in wholesale prices, a decline which would probably be negligible in comparison with the very great price variations which may be caused by various other factors. In this connection reference is made to the possibilities of substantially reducing production costs by scientific organization.

The investigators hold that social insurance benefits constitute a part of wages. If these benefits were reduced compensation of some kind would have to be substituted to meet the workers' needs. The suggestion is also made that in computing the cost of social insurance an estimate should be made of its advantages in allaying the worker's dread of unemployment and sickness and in contributing to the improvement of his health and the increase of his power of production.

¹ Zloty at par=19.3 cents. Exchange rate for December, 1925=10.8 cents.

COOPERATION

Consumers' Cooperative Movement in Illinois

A BOOK on the consumers' cooperative movement in Illinois has recently appeared, by Colston E. Warne.¹ This is by far the most exhaustive study of the cooperative movement in any State that has appeared.

The writer describes the rise of the movement in Illinois, beginning with the Grange stores in 1872, then the movements sponsored, respectively, by the Sovereigns of Industry, the Knights of Labor, N. O. Nelson, and the Right Relationship League. As early as 1901 the miners began to organize cooperative stores, but what the writer calls "the present period of cooperation" in Illinois began in 1910. "But between 1910 and 1915 successive waves of enthusiasm brought effective leadership to cooperation, allowing the expansion to continue undimmed during the war period up to the depression in late 1920. During the war expansion federation was eagerly sought by cooperative leaders. Disdain for the slow growth possible under federated effort, however, caused a movement toward centralized control which resulted disastrously."

The rise and decline of the cooperative chain stores of the miners operating under the "American Rochdale plan" and the subsequent return to the Rochdale system, of the National Cooperative Wholesale Association and its retail chain, of the Farmers' Union stores, and of the spurious Cooperative Society of America are all described in detail.

At the time of the report—the summer of 1923—there were in operation in Illinois 87 cooperative societies, 39 of which were Rochdale enterprises, 26 were farmers' societies and 18 were branches of the Central States Cooperative Wholesale Society which were in process of reorganization on the Rochdale basis. At that time, as is pointed out in the report, the severe depression in mining and farming communities still continued, so that the picture given in the book is one of low ebb in the cooperative movement. By the spring of 1924 conditions had become more favorable.

Most of the stores came into existence through the influence of some labor organization and were aided by it. Thus the miners' union was responsible for 44, the railway unions for 9, the building-trades unions for 2, and the molders' union for 1. The farmers' union had started 9 and the Equity Exchange 7. Fifteen stores were without such backing.

One of the greatest difficulties experienced by the societies is that of inducing the membership to attend the meetings and to take an

¹ Warne, Colston E.: *The Consumers' Cooperative Movement in Illinois*. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1926.

active interest in the affairs of their own business. Lack of capital is also a handicap, but the author is of the opinion that the low rate of interest paid on capital is largely responsible. "One does not need to look beyond the meager 3 to 4 per cent interest typically paid on capital to discover why adequate capital has not been forthcoming."

Competition is keen, but although there has been a rapid advance of the cash-and-carry chain store, the main competition which the cooperative stores have had to meet comes from the credit-giving private stores. "Retailing, with narrow margins, has in many communities become cutthroat in character." The author cites one instance where the competition has been so keen that the stores (cooperative included) have had to open as early as 4 or 5 o'clock in the morning to get the early trade. Of 76 stores, 10 report slight competition, 19 fairly severe, 39 severe, and 8 very severe competition. "In a few communities where the cooperatives have gained ascendancy, the competitive situation is favorable but the trend is distinctly toward a more difficult competitive struggle."

After an analysis of the movement, the author concludes that—

It will now be clear that, although the cooperative movement is too new adequately to test its reform significance, the data indicate that cooperatives have in some measure, justified their claims to superiority. Within its limited scope cooperation has (1) operated retail businesses on a cost basis which compares favorably with private stores; (2) survived a severe postwar depression, losing heavily only (a) among farmers, (b) in the unclassified trades, and (c) in the experiments in cooperative centralization; (3) eliminated many of the motives for fraud; (4) reduced the pressure of salesmanship; (5) eliminated much of the attempt to "make business" through stimulating decorous waste; (6) reduced, in some small towns, capitalistic monopoly; (7) proved superior in its ability to judge demand; (8) employed labor, for the most part, under "fair" conditions; (9) brought to many workers a practical education in democratic control of industry; (10) materially bettered the financial habits of workers; (11) tended to eliminate the cost of "shopping around"; and (12) encouraged truth in accounting statements and openness in business dealings.

On the other hand, cooperation has (1) tended to increase the duplication of marketing facilities; (2) followed, rather than led, in the adoption of new lines of merchandise; (3) failed to lessen materially the grip of the credit system upon workers; (4) failed to secure the necessary capital to allow expansion into further lines of activity; and (5) acquired the reputation of being unsuccessful, thus limiting its growth.

Factors auguring favorably for the movement in Illinois are (1) the survival of "a substantial number of financially successful cooperatives," (2) the fact that cooperative organizations have been continuing to move toward closer federation, (3) the cyclical nature of cooperative enthusiasm, (4) the excellent training in cooperative control and operation, (5) the lower cost of operation of the "cooperative" as compared with the private store, and finally, (6) the elimination of "fakers" from the movement. Limitations are (1) the difficulty of obtaining successful group action, (2) the lack of propagandist spirit, (3) the fact that as compared with Europe, American workers have been less subjected to severe economic conditions, (4) the loss of confidence in cooperation in some places, (5) the fact that other movements have gained the ascendancy in the minds of the workers, especially the younger ones, (6) the ignorance of workers as regards economic problems, (7) the fact that labor struggles, and in some cases, trade-union politics have been carried over into the cooperative movement, (8) the blighting effect of unemployment, (9)

the ability of the cooperative societies to compete with the newer marketing systems, (10) divisions of opinion among cooperators as to proper courses of action, (11) the "increasing obsolescence of the purchase dividend system," and (12) too low a rate of interest on capital.

Appendices give accounts of the experience of individual societies in the State; data showing the financial standing of the Central States Cooperative Wholesale Society in 1919 to 1923; cooperative education in America; a list of Illinois societies in operation on October 1, 1923; and reproduction of data sheets used by the author.

Trade of Cooperative Wholesale Societies, 1924 and 1925

THE November, 1926, issue of the International Cooperative Bulletin (London) contains the following statistics as to the business of cooperative wholesale societies in various countries:

SALES OF WHOLESALE SOCIETIES IN VARIOUS COUNTRIES, 1924 AND 1925

Country and wholesale	Unit of currency ¹	1924	1925
Austria	Schilling	(²)	70,770,000
Belgium	Franc	124,343,475	141,913,152
Czechoslovakia: V. D. P.	Koruna	543,990,220	544,852,947
Denmark	Krone	169,585,370	165,340,137
Estonia	Mark	1,215,266,547	1,435,989,940
Finland:			
S. O. K.	Markka	630,320,183	700,548,578
O. T. K.	do	550,392,605	656,200,000
France	Franc	353,986,123	351,603,427
Georgia	Ruble	4,526,908	5,467,418
Germany: G. E. G.	Mark	168,466,278	228,169,471
Great Britain:			
Cooperative Wholesale Society	Pound	72,888,064	76,585,764
Scottish Wholesale Society	do	17,307,707	17,659,069
Hungary: "Hangya"	Pound	2,043,037	2,082,063
Japan	Yen	1,644,630	3,124,092
Latvia	Lat	24,951,631	33,068,164
Lithuania	Lit	10,737,333	9,304,436
Netherlands	Florin	11,304,306	12,632,150
Norway	Krone	31,580,161	31,926,357
Poland: <i>Zurazek Spoldzielni Spozywcow, Warsaw</i>	Zloty	20,342,747	41,411,772
Russia: <i>Centrosoyus</i>	Ruble	176,800,000	198,000,000
Scandinavia (joint wholesale)	Krone	22,900,000	19,161,175
Sweden	Krona	83,774,000	97,650,000
Switzerland:			
V. S. K.	Franc	123,594,221	125,251,196
Konecordia	do	6,881,500	6,230,534

¹ Schilling at par = 14.07 cents (exchange rate about par in 1925); Belgian franc at par = 19.3 cents (exchange rate, 4.6 and 4.8 cents in 1924 and 1925, respectively); koruna at par = 20.3 cents (exchange, about 3 cents); Danish krone at par = 26.8 cents (16.7 and 21.1 cents); markka at par = 19.3 cents (exchange 2.5 cents); French franc at par = 19.3 cents (exchange, 5.2 and 4.8 cents); German gold mark = 23.8 cents; pound at par = \$4.8665 (exchange, \$4.42 and \$4.88); florin at par = 40.2 cents (exchange, 38.2 and 40.2 cents); yen at par = 49.85 cents (exchange, 41.2 and 41 cents); Norwegian krone at par = 26.8 cents (exchange, 13.9 and 17.9 cents); zloty at par = 19.3 cents (exchange, 19.2 and 17.8 cents); Swedish krona at par = 26.8 cents (exchange, 26.5 and 26.9 cents); Swiss franc at par = 19.3 cents (exchange, 18.2 and 19.3 cents).

² Comparable data not available.

INTERNATIONAL CONGRESSES

First Meeting of International Association for Social Progress¹

AT THE first meeting of the International Association for Social Progress,² which was held at Montreux, September 22-24, 1926, representatives from 17 countries were in attendance.

The subjects for discussion included:

The legal situation of salaried employees.

Accident prevention.

Credit control as a means of preventing periodical unemployment crises.

Public works programs as a method of combating unemployment.

International transfer of rights acquired in connection with social insurance.

The cost of social insurance.

The legal situation of foreign workers.

The cost of social legislation.

A resolution was passed requesting the national sections of the association to undertake in their respective countries an intense propaganda to secure the prompt ratification of the hours convention.

Protective Measures for Salaried Employees

ANOTHER adopted resolution dealt with the protection of salaried employees, declaring that such employees should be granted a half holiday per week, the deduction of necessary Sunday work from the normal working week, and a cessation of work for at least 40 consecutive hours every seven days, and that woman employees should not be dismissed because of work interruptions resulting from pregnancy or childbirth.

The same resolution suggested the following as proper subjects for new national and international regulations: The penalizing of heads of undertakings for making open or secret agreements to refuse to employ certain salaried workers; payment during holidays, such payment being based on length of service; notice of at least six weeks before dismissal, the period to be increased in accordance with length of service; the payment of an indemnity to employees after at least two years of service when an employment contract is canceled through no fault of the employees.

Recommendation was also made for the continuance of the investigation instituted in 1922 for the purpose of gathering documentary data on the questions listed below:

- (1) Methods of combating unemployment among salaried employees (relief for the unemployed, employment exchanges, occupational reeducation, protection of aged employees, emigration, etc.).
- (2) Protection of apprentices and occupational training.
- (3) Protection for inventions made by employees.
- (4) Privileges in the event of bankruptcy or liquidation.
- (5) Labor inspection and control of the protection of employees.
- (6) Reciprocity in regard to social insurance.

¹ International Labor Office. Industrial and Labor Information, Geneva, Oct. 11, 1926, pp. 50-57.

² Amalgamation of the American Association for Labor Legislation, the International Association on Unemployment and the International Social Insurance Committee. (Labor Review, Washington, July, 1926, pp. 184, 185.)

Industrial Accident Prevention

BY RESOLUTION the meeting requested that the International Labor Office continue its efforts to bring about the international regulation of accident prevention and that the national sections of the Association for Social Progress inquire into the headway made in their respective countries along certain special lines of accident prevention.

Social Insurance Rights of Migrant Workers

ANOTHER resolution recommended that the national sections work for the setting up of social insurance systems and for the ratification of the international labor conventions concerning social insurance. It was pointed out that the "principle of equality of treatment should not be in any way restricted, so far as concerns the suspension or capitalization of the pension, in the event of the insured person going abroad" and that "the principle of equality of treatment should be extended to insured persons who, before the risk materializes, pass from one country to another."

Social Insurance Costs

THE following extract is taken from an adopted resolution on the cost of social insurance:

In calculating social charges, account should be taken of other forms of social relief granted to wage earners under a labor agreement or in virtue of legislation. It is of importance in this connection that, for each risk separately, account should be taken of benefits in cash, benefits in kind, and preventive measures. Family charges should also be considered.

The association declares its intention of using the results obtained by the International Labor Office, of comparing them as between one country and another, and of showing their intrinsic value.

The association also intends, in the case of certain countries and certain branches of industry, in particular, "key" industries, to consider the reaction of social charges on the country's capacity to compete on the world market. Carried out in this manner, the work of comparison seems to the association to be both possible and valuable.

The association draws the attention of the national sections to the efforts made for the simplification and improvement in the efficiency of social insurance. It considers it of real urgency that large families should be protected by a system of insurance which takes account of their requirements.

Public Works and Unemployment

IN AN approved measure dealing with unemployment and public works it was stated that the systematic distribution of such works "beyond national frontiers would seem likely to be of considerable importance in the future as a means of combating unemployment."

Association Program for 1926-27

THE meeting concluded to take up the following questions in the coming year:

Legal status of foreign workers.

Maternity insurance and social welfare.

Guiding principles of unemployment insurance.

WORKERS' EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Educational Program of Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America

ACOPY of a "call for education work" is published in the October 29, 1926, issue of the Advance, the official organ of the Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America. The circular requests the local unions and joint boards to further the realization of the following resolution passed at the seventh biennial convention of the Amalgamated Clothing Workers held in Montreal in May, 1926:

The convention calls upon all local organizations to renew the educational activities which were carried on in the previous years. It particularly emphasizes the following:

1. The educational forums conducted for the benefit of the larger numbers of our members and their families.
2. The publication of the almanacs and calendars approved by the Philadelphia convention of the Amalgamated Clothing Workers and which met with so much success in and outside of the organization.

The convention calls attention to the correspondence course in the economics of the clothing industry and the related labor problems, given by the education department. The course has been decidedly successful, and the success of it is due to the fact that an effort has been made to carry on educational activities in close relation to the problems of our own industry and of immediate significance to the life of our members. We recommend that this work be developed and members be encouraged to take up these studies.

The convention further recommends that efforts be made to organize children of the amalgamated members into junior amalgamated clubs or leagues and have these clubs or leagues linked with similar trade-union movements wherever such are developed for the purpose of bringing the children of our fellow members closer to the life and aspirations of their parents and the movement. The activities of these clubs or leagues should be kept free from specific or sectarian propaganda. They should attempt to develop in the children a sympathetic attitude toward an understanding of the struggle for a better life and a richer civilization such as the labor movement carries on.

The convention further recommends that in order to carry these decisions into the actual life and make them effective, each local union and joint board be requested to appoint an educational secretary as they see fit, upon whom shall rest the responsibility for developing the above educational activities, which are essential to the intellectual growth of our organization as well as to the growth of the economic power of our movement.

School for Printing Pressmen's Apprentices, New York City

THE evolution of the printing pressmen's apprentice school in New York City is described in the American Federationist of November, 1926, by Philip Umstadter, president of the New York Printing Pressmen's Union, No. 51.

He states that in the summer of 1922 a conference was held in New York between the employing printers of that city and New

York Printing Pressmen's Union, No. 51, to discuss a scheme for training apprentices, which would be of benefit to the whole printing industry. At that time the skilled pressmen were divided into two separate organizations, and the representatives of the cylinder pressmen felt that an apprentice school could not be successfully operated unless all the commercial skilled pressmen could be amalgamated in one organization. The matter of the consolidation of the two unions was approved at the International Printing Pressmen's convention in August, 1924, and the following January the amalgamation went into effect.

Shortly afterwards a decision was reached to establish an apprenticeship school. At first the expense of such an institution seemed prohibitive for the organizations concerned. The project, however, was taken up with the College of the City of New York, and as a result several conferences were held with the superintendent of vocational school training and representatives of the board of education.

On April 8, 1925, the board of education approved a contract between that body and the joint apprenticeship committee representing the New York Pressmen's Union, No. 51 and the Printers' League Section of the New York Employing Printers' Association. This contract stipulated that the board of education should secure equipment and teachers, approve the curriculum, and furnish certificates to those completing the course. The contract also provided for cooperation in improving "the standards of technical training for craftsmanship and in decision of administrative problems."

With this contract as a basis, a school for apprentices was formally opened September 14, 1925.

The complete apprentice course covers 4 years and 155 indentured apprentices are attending the classes, the first-year apprentices on Tuesdays, second-year apprentices on Wednesdays, third-year apprentices on Thursdays, and fourth-year apprentices on Fridays. The classes are held from 2 to 5 in the afternoon and from 6 to 9 in the evening. Journeymen pressmen following advanced courses attend classes for 3 hours per week on Monday afternoons or evenings.

An apprenticeship contract indicates the length of time the apprentice is to serve and the session he is to follow and provides for the payments to be made by the employer and the apprentice. The Printers' League, the apprentice, the individual employer, and the union each receives a copy of the contract. In accordance with this agreement the employer pays the joint apprentice committee a commission fee of \$25 per annum on each apprentice and each apprentice pays a similar amount.

Among the advantages of this new scheme for educating apprentices are the following:

1. A 4-year period of apprenticeship with the employer's guaranty that he will keep the apprentice in his employment during such period.
2. The agreement of the apprentice to attend school under the supervision of the joint apprentice committee.
3. The agreement of the employer to pay the apprentice during the time he attends the afternoon classes and also, as previously noted, the agreement of the employer to pay a part of the apprentice's annual tuition.

4. The agreement of the employer to abide by the rules concerning the employment of apprentices as laid down in the union's school contract with the employers.

This cooperative plan, according to the article, "has been put to a practical test and is very promising." The president of the New York Printing Pressmen's Union, No. 1, however, thinks that in order to establish successfully a similar system in any other part of the country, it would be necessary for the labor union instituting such scheme to have control of at least 75 per cent of the workers in the particular industry involved, as well as the cooperation of various progressive elements in that industry. Another important requisite is the comprehensive understanding of existing needs.

Trade-Union Report on New York City Continuation Schools¹

ASUBSTANTIAL section of the report of the committee on education of the New York State Federation of Labor to the 1926 convention of that body dealt with the subject of continuation schools in New York City. In a letter of June 15, 1926, to the mayor, signed by the chairman of the committee and embodied in the report to the convention the types of schools needed were listed as follows:

1. Those which provide facilities for the elementary vocational guidance or "tryout" instruction. These are the local, or neighborhood, or borough schools; and
2. Those which provide "high-school" courses for boys and girls who wish to complete their secondary education; and
3. Those which provide facilities for extension training in the trades and occupations in which the children are engaged, or expect to engage—these are really apprentice schools.

The committee also pointed out that the best and most modern equipment is required for the extension or apprentice schools and the high schools.

The following kinds of extension schools, the committee held, should be established in appropriate industrial areas of the city: Auto-repair trades, building trades, commercial occupations, drafting occupations, food trades, machine trades, needle trades, printing trades, and others.

Among the critical allegations made by the committee in regard to the city's continuation schools are those quoted below:

That suitable buildings have not been provided in which to house the continuation schools;

That only a part of the staff of continuation-school teachers has been trained for this work and that there is no plan for the licensing and no definite salary schedule for any of the continuation-school teachers;

That no satisfactory plans of organization or course of instruction have been worked out;

That the attendance of all 14, 15, and 16 year old children has not been enforced;

That no adequate staff of supervisors has been employed for the purpose of making studies and investigations and to supervise the work of the continuation schools.

¹ New York State Federation of Labor. Official Book. Proceedings, 63d annual convention, at Niagara Falls, Aug. 24-26, 1926, Albany, 1926, pp. 183, 185.

International Congress on Vocational Guidance of Women¹

THE married woman in industry was the principal subject of discussion at the International Congress on Women's Vocational Guidance which was held in Bordeaux, September 23-26, 1926.

Among the resolutions passed, was one demanding that—

1. Girls' education should be such as to fit them for married life and household duties;
2. That the wage earned by the father of a family should be sufficient to support the family, and that, where this is not so, the difference should be made up by the granting of family allowances;
3. That women without children and, still more, fathers of families, should endeavor to increase their output, with a view to facilitating the gradual suppression of the employment of mothers;
4. That children of indigent widows should be afforded care and protection either through social insurance or by national pensions legislation;
5. That the foregoing ideas should be promoted among the working classes in all countries;
6. That, as a first step toward the realization of these ideas, married women should only be employed on part-time work, and that the necessary institutions should be set up to study the best means of giving effect to this.

The congress also approved resolutions concerning vocational guidance for women in general and especially in reference to agriculture, commercial and industrial occupations, teaching, and several other professions.

Activities of Vocational Education Associations in China²

Grants for Vocational Education

THE board of directors of the China Education and Culture Endowment Fund has approved an initial grant of \$5,000,³ and an appropriation of \$15,000 per annum for 3 years, beginning from 1926, to the China Vocational Education Association. These subsidies are to be used for the development of vocational education in China. The association plans to employ experts to extend the work in rural sections; to make laboratory experiments in the mechanical department of the vocational school which the association has established; and also for the promotion of vocational education for women.

Shanghai Employment Guidance Committee

TO ASSIST graduates from schools in Kiangsu or abroad to secure positions, a Graduates' Employment Committee of 22 members has been elected by the China Vocational Education Association, the Provincial Educational Association of Kiangsu, and the Joint Committee of the Vocational Schools of Kiangsu. A survey made by

¹ International Labor Office. Industrial and Labor Information, Geneva, Nov. 8, 1926.

² The Chinese Economic Bulletin, Peking, Sept. 4, 1926, p. 139; Oct. 23, 1926, p. 243; and Nov. 13, 1926, p. 292.

³ Exchange value of this dollar is about 50 cents in United States currency.

the Provincial Educational Association showed that from 22 to 36 per cent of the high-school or middle-school graduates are without employment after graduation and that 50 or 60 per cent of the returned pupils have not been employed. The newly organized Graduates' Employment Committee is to ascertain the number of unemployed graduates above high-school standing within the past two years and undertake also to get in touch with the managements of important factories and other industrial and business establishments, to request various school principals to make practical courses available to students in order that they may secure work, and to set up branch agencies for the gathering of data on employment opportunities.

Improving Agricultural Life in Kiangsu

THE living conditions on Kiangsu farms are to be improved through the cooperation of the Chang Hwa Vocational Education Association and the Southeastern University. Initial investigations have already been undertaken at Chinkiang, Wusih, and Kunshan, and the Hsukungchiao section of the last-mentioned district has been selected for the first trial.

Among the activities planned are "the distribution of improved seeds, extermination of harmful insects, promotion of home industries, promotion of cooperative societies, extension of vocational, compulsory, and common education, encouragement of reafforestation, provision of proper sanitation and recreation, and a campaign against gambling and opium-smoking."

German Metal Workers' School of Economics¹

REALIZING the necessity for thorough and efficiently planned educational activities under trade-union auspices, the German Metal Workers' Union began in 1921 to arrange special lecture courses in various sections of the country. In March, 1926, this union opened a school of economics which has taken the place of the previous system of lecture courses.

A large hotel in central Germany, near the city of Leipzig, has been purchased and transformed into a college. The ground floor includes two lecture halls, a library, study room, dining rooms, etc.; and on the first and second floors 40 rooms with 80 beds. The college also has a billiard room and other rooms for social purposes, a skittle ground, and a fine garden.

The three principal lines of study are to be economics, industrial legislation, and commercial and technical management. There is a teacher for each of these three subjects and visiting teachers for certain other special subjects. Three weeks' courses dealing with particular branches of the iron and metal industry are being arranged for groups of 50 students. The first course is for the heavy iron industry and is to be followed by one course each for the electricity works, the automobile industry, the shipbuilding yards, etc.

¹ *Man and Metal*, the Journal of the Iron and Steel Trades Confederation. London, September, 1926.

The statement given below shows the ambitious character of the educational program of this union:

In order to give an idea of the scope of our future work, we hope to have courses for the foundries, locomotive and carriage industries, bicycle, typewriter, sewing machine, steam engine, agricultural machines industries, the machine tools industries (arranged in groups, as the graphic, leather and boot, textile, mining, woodwork, etc., tool industries), lighting industry, iron construction, steel and cutlery, and clock industries, mechanical instruments industry of all kinds, precious metals industries, and so on.

The different courses have to build on what the students, who are members of works councils and functionaries of the union, bring along in the way of knowledge. For instance, if we have 50 students from the automobile industry united in one course, these colleagues of 50 different shops will no doubt collectively possess a considerable amount of knowledge and experience in their special sphere of work. In this way the exchange of opinions and the interest in the course will be increased and the teaching facilitated.

Starting with the position and the conditions of their particular branch of industry, we want to make the student familiar with the interrelationship of national and world economies. The problems both of their branch of industry and of economic life as a whole will equally be considered. It is also necessary for every trade-union official to get acquainted with industrial legislation and methods of management.

It is realized, of course, that it is not possible to produce an expert in all lines as the result of a three weeks' course. The college management feels, however, that in well-planned lectures keen students can be given an introduction to the subject of the course and to the most important social problems confronting the present generation. The students will be highly stimulated intellectually "and, most important of all, they will learn methods of systematic self-education in order to build up knowledge and power through years of further self study."

Aside from these courses for the officials of the metal workers' union, further courses have been planned for the union's employees—organizers and office workers. The curriculum will be designed to meet particular needs.

Careful observation and investigation will show in every course how large a proportion of the students surpasses the average intelligence and ability. The union may later on provide further courses of several months' duration for specially gifted and advanced officials. Further, it will try to keep the students who have finished the course in touch with the school and the teachers through correspondence courses.

The railway fares of the students are paid out of trade-union funds. The board and lodging at the college are free and reimbursement is made for lost salaries and wages, such reimbursement being on a different scale for married and single persons.

The school of economics is intended to benefit not only the German Metal Workers' Union and its work, but the whole of the labor movement. We have great hopes that the school will shape itself into a weapon for the whole movement, thus giving proof that well-developed industrial unions are capable of excelling in the educational sphere as well as in others.

Workers' Education in Japan¹

AN INQUIRY into workers' education in Japan has recently been made by the World Association for Adult Education. It was found that both the Government and the local authorities are assisting in the general education of the masses, mainly through vocational schools, though a few lectures and adult educational courses have also been given. More important activities are being carried on by voluntary organizations which have set up "free" universities in numerous towns where students of all ages and all classes may avail themselves of lectures at small cost and follow courses covering several years. The rules for the management of these universities are formulated by a conference of lecturers and students. As the first of these "free" universities was established in 1922, it is evident that the movement is only beginning.

Workers' education by the workers is also in its initial stage. In 1921 and 1922 the Japanese labor movement started a few schools. There are at present more than 20 of these institutions, which have a "definite propagandist bias" and undertake "to produce a proletarian culture," their object being to "offer equality of educational opportunity to the workers and to raise their cultural standing." There is much zeal for this cause but little money. It is difficult to secure adequate accommodations for the applicants for the courses.

The Tokyo Labor School, which is directed by the president of the Japanese Federation of Labor, is carried on under the auspices of the Workers' Education Association. This is mainly an evening school for the training of trade-union officials and for providing "social education for the rank and file." The institution now has 53 students and 317 have finished their courses. There has also been a workers' school at Osaka since 1922, through which 327 have passed. Among the subjects studied in these labor schools are social problems, economics, and industrial law.

Schools have also been established in Japan for the promotion of better understanding between employers and employees.

Apprenticeship in New Zealand

THE report of the New Zealand Department of Labor for the year ending March 31, 1926, contains a discussion of the work done under the apprenticeship act which came into force April 1, 1924. (See Labor Review, November, 1924, p. 219.) Under the provisions of the act, school authorities were to forward to the department reports on boys leaving school, on receipt of which the department would try to get in touch with the boys and their parents, offering to help in placing the boys in any line of work they might prefer. This provision has not been utilized as much as had been hoped.

Reports on a large number of boys leaving the schools were received accordingly, but only 894 of the boys applied to the department for assistance. The boys were apparently able in most cases to make their own arrangements for employment.

¹International Federation of Trade Unions. Press reports, No. 43. Amsterdam, Nov. 11, 1926. International workers education supplement, p. 2.

Another provision of the act was that apprenticeship committees, containing representatives of employers and workers in equal numbers, and functioning under the general control of the industrial court, might be set up in any locality, covering any industry or group of industries. There are now 103 of these committees, covering 26 industries. The court is empowered to issue general orders concerning hours, wages, duration of period of training and other conditions of employment for apprentices. There are now 81 such orders in force, most, if not all, of which have been agreed to by all parties concerned.

At the time the act was adopted, it was generally supposed that one result of its operation would be a reduction in the length of the apprenticeship period, but there has been no effect of this kind. On the contrary, in two industries—baking and pastry cooking, and electrical working—the period of apprenticeship has, with the consent of the committees concerned, been increased from four to five years.

In regard to the proportion of apprentices to journeymen, the act provides that the court shall first fix the proportion in any locality for the industry as a whole, and that thereafter the number for any particular employer shall be decided according to his ability or facilities for teaching the trade. The court may delegate to the local committees its jurisdiction in the latter respect, and in practice it has done so wherever committees have been formed. Reports from the different districts show that during the year five employers, one each in the plumbing, saddlery, and furniture trades, and two in the carpentering trade, have been refused permission to take apprentices, while in six cases the committees have transferred apprentices from one employer to another, on account of the first employer's inability to give proper training.

In order to decide upon the proportion of apprentices to be allowed, it is necessary each year to collect data from the various trades, showing the number of journeymen and apprentices already employed. The information obtained during the last two years shows that on the average there was 1 apprentice to 3.2 journeymen, the range being from 1 to 5.4 journeymen in building trade painting to 1 to 2.1 journeymen in plumbing. In order to keep up the supply of trained workers, the court is empowered to require any employer or employers to take on a minimum number of apprentices, but so far no action has been taken under this section. The number actually in training is much lower than it would be if the employers were taking the proportion allowed by the court's awards. Where employers are anxious to train beginners, however, the court sometimes varies the proportion allowed.

It has been represented by many employers that they should be given more freedom as to the number of apprentices that may be employed. The court in one or two instances has given indications in its orders that appear to show a recognition of the needs of industry in this regard. In the cabinetmaking and furniture trade in one district the order of the court increased the proportion of apprentices to journeymen from 1 to 3 in the whole industry to 1 to 2 in each branch of the industry in the whole district. In the plumbing trade in the same locality the proportion has been increased from 1 to 3 to 1 to 2. A similar increase has been made in the proportions in the bricklaying trade in another district.

Workers' Education in Sweden

THE workers' education movement in Sweden began in 1868 and there are now in that country 50 resident schools for agricultural and industrial workers and a very large number of evening classes, according to a report by Hilda W. Smith in the August, 1926, issue of *Workers' Education*. The evening class activities are directed by an organization within the labor movement. At present this organization has 27 district supervisors and carries on study classes in 670 communities. If a group of workers demands instruction on any subject such subject is made a part of the program of this organization, which also makes arrangements for dramatic performances, concerts, and circulating libraries.

The State educational department is in charge of workers' education. State and local governments contribute financially to the resident schools and evening classes. Funds for these educational activities are also received from trade-union sources, groups in the cooperative movement, and other organized bodies.

From its beginning the workers' education movement in Sweden has placed emphasis on the development of personality and a civic sense. It is not thought necessary to make everyone conform to one standard in education. Individual talent is encouraged, and also creative work of all kinds. As a result, one feels that this whole movement is very far ahead in educational methods, and that these schools must be largely responsible for the highly developed culture among many groups of Swedish workers.

The Brunsvik Workers' School in the district around Ludvika is a resident institution attended by men in the winter and by women in the summer. In 1925 the summer student group numbered about 60 women from many localities in Sweden and from various trades. At this school hard study in political science, history, and literature is combined with life in the open and handicraft work. At Axvalle a former military barracks has been converted into a school. The former prison is now a dormitory, and the parade grounds are used for an athletic field. The Swedish handicrafts are also a conspicuous feature of this institution. Close to Stockholm, at Jacobsberg, there is a school financed to a large extent by different groups in the cooperative movement, assisted by appropriations from the Government.

WOMEN IN INDUSTRY

Change of Jobs in a Certain Group of Woman Workers

IN AN effort to throw some light, from the worker's point of view, upon the causes of labor turnover, the Women's Bureau has recently published a study of job changes based upon the experiences of 97 women who attended the Bryn Mawr summer school for woman workers in industry in 1925. The group studied came to the school directly from jobs in 18 different States and was considered widely representative. About one-half had been in industry 10 years or more, and only 14 per cent had been industrially employed for less than 6 years.

Nearly three-fifths of the group had held their positions on an average less than two years, more than a quarter (28) for less than a year, and 6 of these for less than six months. On the other hand, 11 reported an average duration of 5 years or more at their jobs and 4 as much as from 10 to 16 years. The garment workers were conspicuously a short-job group, while the textile workers showed 7 out of 16 as having held jobs for from 3 to 10 years and over. A number of those in miscellaneous industries had changed jobs with a frequency which seems to indicate that they had changed for the very purpose of securing variety.

For example, one worker who started in domestic service changed to a job in a lamp factory. Leaving that, she worked successively in a noodle factory, a glass-manufacturing concern, the lamp factory again, and a battery factory. Next she tried domestic service with two different employers, returned to the lamp factory, and left it a third time in order to make linings in a casket factory.

A garment worker who made a practice of securing odd jobs during slack periods took jobs which included such varied occupations as waiting at table, clerking in a 5-and-10 cent store, working in a sweater factory, investigating for a charity organization, serving as an invalid's companion, and decoying trade to a Russian tea shop by impersonating a Russian refugee aristocrat. She had held 18 jobs of a week or more and innumerable jobs of less than a week in an industrial life of six years.

The reasons for making a change were secured in regard to 599 jobs and show the following distribution:

Wages and hours.....	146	Needed at home.....	15
Lay-off.....	120	To see other cities—restlessness.....	13
Union business.....	48	Own illness.....	9
Dislike of management.....	38	No promotion.....	8
Dislike of operation.....	34	Marriage.....	6
Change of residence.....	32	Lockout.....	5
Discharge.....	27	Childbirth.....	3
Education.....	24	Other.....	13
Sanitation and health.....	23		
Starting of regular industry.....	19	Total.....	599
Strike.....	16		

It will be seen that wages and hours accounted for the greatest number of changes, closely followed by lay-offs. In the garment making industry this order was reversed, lay-offs accounting for 52

changes against 32 due to wages and hours. Summing up the reasons for change, the report draws the following conclusions:

Among the industrial factors found conspicuously associated with short jobs are: (1) The seasonal nature of business, (2) the character of management under which production is carried on, and (3) the monotony and routine of the work itself. The last of these appears to have become permanently established in modern machine industry. On the other hand, changes affecting the first two factors are now taking place. Constant effort is being made to regularize industry, and in many instances dull periods have been shortened and sometimes eliminated.

It is not to be assumed that without other changes the mere keeping of workers at the same jobs for longer periods is the end to be achieved. The rate of change is, however, one of the most important indications of the existence of conditions which make for instability in a given industry or shop and as such should be carefully measured. If it is found that frequent changes of employment are inevitable under modern industrial organization, then different methods of employment management and different industrial relations and tactics from those now in vogue in many places will have to be worked out.

CHILD LABOR

Reasons for Iowa Children Leaving School

THE Iowa Bureau of Labor has recently published a report (Bulletin 17) of an investigation, made in the spring of 1925, of children in industry attending part-time schools. Under the Iowa law, children between 14 and 16 who leave the full-time schools must attend part-time or continuation schools for at least eight hours a week until they are 16, after which attendance is optional. In most of the Iowa part-time schools, children attend twice a week, each school day being 4 hours in length. The study of the children found in these schools was undertaken, among other purposes, for the sake of getting light upon the real causes for their leaving school.

The investigation covered 385 children in 12 cities. This did not include the full number of children attending part-time schools, but only those found in attendance on the day the survey was made. The reasons given by these children for having left the full-time schools were as follows:

REASONS FOR LEAVING SCHOOL

Reason for leaving school	Boys		Girls	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Disliked school: Studies too difficult; behind in work	106	60.6	84	40.0
Economic reasons: Parents dead; father out of work; large family	46	26.3	50	23.8
To help in the home	4	2.3	39	18.6
Illness on part of child	11	6.3	28	13.3
Moving from school district	8	4.6	9	4.3
Total	175	100.0	210	100.0

It will be seen that among both boys and girls dislike of school was by far the most important reason for leaving. The report points out that this dislike manifests itself especially at three periods:

There seem to be three distinct stages in school work where the child has difficulty in mastering the work. The first is found in the primary grades. Here the child of low mentality gets stalled. The second is in the higher grades, from the 6-B to 8-B. The third stage is from the 9-B to the 10-B.

If the child can pass the sixth grade without any difficulty, supposing there is no irregularity in attendance or sickness, it can invariably complete the grammar grades without much difficulty. If the child has much difficulty in passing the sixth grade it will have corresponding difficulty in passing the succeeding grades and will invariably drop out in the seventh or the first part of the eighth grade. If, after some difficulty, it does complete the grammar grades it is ready to quit school for good. Again, if the child has difficulty in passing the grammar grades it will have an increasing difficulty in high school if it decides to try it, and will be willing to quit in the 9-B or the 10-B grade.

Only five each of the boys and girls were foreign born, and only 21 per cent of the boys and 29 per cent of the girls had one or both parents of foreign birth. The group is thus predominantly American born of American-born parents. Sixty-one, or 34.9 per cent, of the boys and 71, or 33.8 per cent, of the girls came from homes which had been broken by divorce or by the death of one or both parents. In the approximately two-thirds of the cases in which both parents were

living and together, it was felt that economic necessity was seldom the real reason for the child's having left school. "Some of the parents were struggling to get along, but they were managing well enough to keep the boy or girl in school if the child wished to stay." Among the children from broken homes, poverty was more often a real cause, yet children from equally poor homes were found continuing attendance at full-time schools.

The general conclusion reached is that the greater number of children left school because the school failed to meet their needs. The high schools for the most part are planned for children who wish either to go to college or to take commercial training. They offer little to the child who is "trade minded," or who is slower than the average and falls behind his group, and of course they offer still less to the subnormal child. The part-time schools are successful partly because they offer more practical industrial training, partly because they make a closer connection between the academic and the trade work, and partly because they demand less of the child's time and attention. It is suggested that if the regular schools offered more and better industrial training, they might hold their pupils better and diminish the need for the part-time schools.

Industrial Home Work and Child Labor in Pennsylvania

IN THE spring of 1924 the National Child Labor Committee, the Public Education and Child Labor Association of Pennsylvania, and the Consumers' League of Eastern Pennsylvania joined in making an inquiry into industrial home work in five counties in the Philadelphia region, with the idea of collecting direct evidence as to whether or not children were being employed in such work illegally. The material secured was used as the basis of a report recently prepared by the Bureau of Women and Children and issued as Special Bulletin No. 11 of the Pennsylvania Department of Labor and Industry.

Under the Pennsylvania law, minors under 14 may not be employed in any industrial process, and those between 14 and 16 must have employment certificates before they may be legally employed. The investigation covered 1,526 families, of which 1,243 had children in the home. In half (621) of the families of this latter group, children to the number of 1,239 were illegally employed at industrial home work. The largest number, 455, were working on men's clothing, 104 were employed on women's and children's clothing, 100 worked on knit goods, 427 worked at stringing tags, and 153 were engaged in miscellaneous forms of work. By age, the 1,235 children whose age was reported showed the following grouping:

	Number	Per cent
Under 6 years	68	5. 5
6 and under 8 years	114	9. 2
8 and under 10 years	229	18. 5
10 and under 12 years	307	24. 9
12 and under 14 years	295	23. 9
14 and under 16 years	222	18. 0
Total	1, 235	100. 0

The great majority, it will be seen, were under the age at which they might legally be employed at any kind of industrial occupation; the comparatively small group aged 14 but under 16 were old enough to be employed, but had no employment certificates.

Stringing tags employed the largest group of very young children, the next largest group being employed on men's clothing, pulling out bastings and picking off ravelings. Girls were employed more numerously than boys, three out of every five of the employed children being girls. Ninety-three per cent of the group were native born, but 67 per cent had foreign-born fathers. In 90 per cent of the families the father was living and at home with the family; 4 per cent of the fathers were reported as out of work. The median earnings of the fathers in families having children illegally employed were between \$25 and \$35 a week, while for the families in which no children were working they were between \$15 and \$25.

Nearly twice as many of the fathers in families where children did not work as in families where the children were working illegally fell in the lowest-paid group. The economic status of the father seems, therefore, comparatively unimportant as a deciding factor in the illegal employment of children at home work.

It was difficult to get accurate information as to the time the children spent at work, but data were secured as to the time at which they worked.

Nearly 40 per cent of the children reported afternoon work only, but 61 children, or 5 per cent, were reported as working morning, afternoon, and evening. More than one-half of this latter group were stringing tags. Although no minor under 16 may be legally employed after 8 o'clock at night, 387, or 32 per cent, of the children were reported as working after 8 o'clock at night.

These figures relate to the time of working on school days, but in addition 367 worked on Saturday, 4 on Sunday but not on Saturday, and 46 worked on both Saturday and Sunday.

It was impossible to secure the earnings of individuals, but for 599 families in which children were illegally employed, the earnings at home work for the week preceding the inquiry were learned. Three-fifths (61.9 per cent) had earned less than \$6 during the week, 16 per cent had earned \$6 but under \$8, and only 13.9 per cent had earned \$10 or over.

The findings of the inquiry furnished a basis for new regulations affecting industrial home work, which were adopted by the Pennsylvania Department of Labor and Industry in June, 1925. At the time this report was prepared these regulations had been in force for six months, and the great majority of the employers affected had shown themselves ready and willing to cooperate in working out plans for insuring their observance.

During the six-month period of the administration of the regulations the industries whose home-work conditions were the worst at the time this study was made are the industries where the employers almost without exception have developed excellently functioning systems of regulating and supervising their home work.

LABOR LAWS AND COURT DECISIONS

State Versus Federal Regulation of Railroads

THE United States Supreme Court recently ruled against two specific forms of railway regulation by the States, at the same time throwing a serious doubt over a number of similar enactments. The Georgia Legislature, by an act of 1924 (p. 173), prescribed the installation of automatic doors for the fire boxes of locomotives of 125,000 pounds or over on carrier railroads; while the Wisconsin Legislature, by an act of 1923 (ch. 139), prescribed the adoption of cab curtains for the protection of the occupants of locomotive cabs. Neither act was assumed to be directly a safety regulation, but rather one for health.

The constitutionality of these acts was challenged as being beyond the power of State legislatures to enact, in view of the resultant alleged conflict between State and Federal laws. In Georgia a decree restraining the enforcement of the act was appealed from by the attorney general of the State, while in Wisconsin two railroad companies appealed from a decision by the supreme court of the State sustaining the validity of the cab curtain act. (*Chicago & North Western Railway Co. v. Railroad Commission*, 188 Wis. 232, 205 N. W. 932; see Bulletin No. 417, p. 123.) These cases were consolidated on a hearing before the Supreme Court, the leading title being *Napier v. Atlantic Coast Line Railroad Co.* (47 Sup. Ct. 207), and the decision being rendered November 29, 1926. Representations were made in support of the acts that in reducing the exposure of the employees to extremes of heat and cold, the safety of the train might be incidentally affected; though "each device was prescribed by the State primarily to promote the health and comfort of engineers and firemen."

Mr. Justice Brandeis, who delivered the unanimous opinion of the court, stated that unless the commerce clause of the Constitution was violated, the requirements might be assumed to be a proper exercise of the police power of the States. Absence of physical conflict between these devices and those specifically prescribed by Congress or the Interstate Commerce Commission might also be assumed, and any interference with commerce resulting from the State legislation "would be incidental only." If the States were to be excluded from exerting their police power that intention must be clearly manifested.

After reviewing the various congressional acts in the field, it was concluded that the safety appliance act of 1893 (27 Stat. 531) and amendments obviously did not intend to occupy the entire field of regulating locomotive equipment. The same would be true of the original boiler inspection act of 1911 (36 Stat. 913), "since its provisions were limited to the boiler." In its present form, however, the boiler inspection act was held to delegate to the Interstate Commerce Commission a general power which "extends to the design,

the construction, and the material of every part of a locomotive and tender and of all appurtenances." On this view the court was of the opinion that "State legislation is precluded, because the boiler inspection act, as we construe it, was intended to occupy the field." Requirements by the States are consequently precluded, "however commendable or however different their purpose."

A footnote to the opinion enumerates the rules issued by the Interstate Commerce Commission under its authority in regulation of the construction and equipment of locomotives and tenders. There are rules relating to steam gauges, water glasses, ash pans, cab windows, headlights, classification lamps, etc. An inspection of the railroad statutes passed by the various States shows that many, perhaps all, of these details have been the subject of State legislation, as headlights in many States, water glasses in a few, ash pans in some, storm windows, cab curtains (Michigan), automatic fire doors (New York and Washington), and other items definitely provided for by the rules of the commission. It seems an inevitable consequence of the decision in the Napier case that railroads will find a basis for ignoring these requirements, compliance with the Federal standards alone being obligatory. This would seem to be true even in respect of purely intrastate operations since, as stated by Mr. Justice Brandeis in the instant case, "it is conceded that the Federal safety appliance and boiler inspection acts apply to a locomotive used on a highway of interstate commerce, even if it is operated wholly within one State and is not engaged in hauling interstate freight or passengers."

Collective Agreement as Restraint of Trade

THE building contractors, manufacturers of millwork, and the carpenters' union of Chicago formed an agreement to prevent the use of nonunion-made millwork in building operations in the city of Chicago. The United States District Court found this agreement to be in violation of the Sherman Antitrust Act (26 Stat. 209), on account of its effect on interstate commerce, but on appeal the circuit court of appeals reversed this judgment and remanded the case to the court below. (*Brims v. United States*, 6 Fed. (2d) 98.) It was said that no sufficient proof was offered as to interference with interstate commerce, the charges of the indictment that there was a combination or conspiracy to prevent manufacturing plants located in other States from selling and delivering building materials in and to the city of Chicago not being sustained. That court found the agreement to be one dealing merely with the product of nonunion labor regardless of the place of its origin. "The restriction was not against the shipment of millwork into Illinois. It was against nonunion-made millwork produced in or out of Illinois."

Instead of the case being remanded to the court below, the United States procured a writ of certiorari to the Supreme Court for a review of the decision of the circuit court of appeals. That court found that the evidence showed an agreement as indicated, the purpose being to eliminate the competition of other mills than those within the city of Chicago, located mostly in Wisconsin and the South,

which sold their product in the Chicago market cheaper than local manufacturers who employed union labor could afford to do.

Mr. Justice McReynolds, who delivered the opinion of the court, found that the agreement between manufacturers, contractors, and carpenters, by which the carpenters should be employed under conditions requiring the installation of only union-made millwork would relieve the manufacturers of the competition of these outside establishments, and that the evidence reasonably tended to show that by the combination, "as intended by all the parties, the so-called outside competition was cut down and thereby interstate commerce directly and materially impeded." Since the allegations of the bill were thus supported by evidence indicating interference with interstate commerce, the fact that intrastate commerce was included in the effects did not condone the violation of the statute. The judgment below was therefore reversed and the case remanded to the circuit court of appeals for the consideration of other assignments of error presented to it on the appeal from the district court. (United States *v.* Brims, No. 212—47 Sup. Ct. 169.)

Employment Registry as Violation of Antitrust Act

ACURRENT manifestation of that unfortunate attitude, sometimes adopted by persons in power, which seeks to secure the absolute control of a situation affecting others was passed upon recently by the Supreme Court of the United States. An organization known as the Shipowners' Association of the Pacific Coast, in cooperation with another known as the Pacific American Steamship Association, owning, operating, or controlling substantially all the merchant vessels of American registry operating on the Pacific coast, in 1922, entered upon an employment system by which they sought a complete domination of the methods of employment of all seamen engaged in that commerce. Indeed, it is only in their service that seamen can be employed in that portion of the United States.

In 1922 or 1923, Alfred Street, a member of the International Seamen's Union of America, brought an action on his own behalf and in behalf of the more than 10,000 members of the union to procure an injunction against the carrying out of the system of registration and employment adopted. It was contended that the method was in effect a blacklist, and was unlawful interference with the rights of free contract and access to a free market for labor to which the petitioner was entitled. The plan included a system of registry by which each seaman desiring to engage with the shipowners was given a number, and required to take his turn for employment accordingly. The agency, known as an employment service bureau, furnished a certificate and book to be retained by the seaman until employment, when it would be placed in the hands of the master of the vessel, to be kept by him until discharge or termination of the employment. Items as to place of birth, age, height, weight, appearance, and a photograph attached furnished means of identification. A fee was charged for the book "sufficient to cover the cost of the same."

Street's contention that the system was a restriction of employment and an interference with constitutional rights entitling him and his

associates to injunctive relief was rejected by the District Court of the United States for the Northern District of California on the grounds of insufficiency of the complaint to constitute a cause of action and that the court had no jurisdiction to hear and determine the suit. The opinion was expressed that the regulations of the associations did not violate the shipping commissioner's act nor the antitrust law; moreover, Street was not shown to have any standing "entitling him to seek in court the general relief for which he prays. He is not in a position to vindicate general governmental policies, nor is he 'the agency to establish the public welfare.' "

An appeal was taken directly from this decree of dismissal to the Supreme Court, assigning errors and affirming the sufficiency of the complaint and of the ground for relief therein expressed. Mr. Justice McKenna, speaking for the court, stated as a fact that "the regulations are humiliating to all seamen, and the best seamen refuse to abide by them and are leaving the seafaring calling." The action of the service bureau inflicts loss and damage and is destructive of competition among those who wish to engage as seamen and establishes regulations which are within the exclusive right of Congress to make. However, as the Judicial Code does not provide for an appeal direct from the district court in a case of this nature, it was found necessary to transfer the case to the circuit court of appeals for the ninth circuit. (*Street v. Shipowner's Assn.* (1923), 263 U. S. 334, 44 Sup. Ct. 119.)

When the case came before the circuit court of appeals in accordance with the above decision, that court found nothing in the method involved calling for the relief prayed for. Indeed, the system of registration and taking numbers and turns was said to be neither unfair nor discriminatory but rather a regulation that "seems to be fair and reasonable in the interests of a square deal"; and instead of being un-American, as charged, it seemed to Circuit Judge Morrow to be truly American and "well adapted for the regulation of the business of shipping seamen." (Same case (1924), 299 Fed. 5.)

That the seamen themselves did not so regard the system, but that they rather felt toward it as Mr. Justice McKenna stated, appears from the further action by one Anderson who, on June 15, 1925, applied at the office of the shipowner's association in San Francisco for employment as a seaman, and was refused because he did not have the required registration papers. He then went to the mate of a vessel and was employed by him but subsequently discharged at the instance of the association, for which damages were claimed in the amount of \$135. An injunction against the continuance of the practice was also sought, but on motion of the defendants, the district court dismissed the proceedings, whereupon an appeal was taken to the circuit court of appeals. Here emphasis was laid on the violation of the antitrust laws on account of interference with interstate and foreign commerce in view of the restraint on free employment and the consequence that "less capable men are employed on vessels than would be employed if the officers of the vessels looked after the employment." This was said by the court to be an indirect and incidental impediment to commerce at most, and was regarded as falling outside the scope of the antitrust acts; neither did the court find that there was any violation of Federal

statutes as to the manner in which seamen are to be employed and in the nature of the shipping contract, and the decree below was affirmed. (*Anderson v. Shipowners' Association* (1926), 10 Fed. (2d) 96.)

From this affirmation of the decree of dismissal, the case was taken to the Supreme Court of the United States, which found that "the only question necessary to be considered here is whether the bill states a case within the antitrust act." Mr. Justice Sutherland, speaking for the court, reviewed the facts as above, and found that the associations fixed the wages to be paid and that "when a seaman's turn comes, he must take the employment then offered or none, whether it is suited to his qualifications or whether he wishes to engage on the particular vessel or for the particular voyage; and the officers of the vessels are deprived of the right to select their own men or those deemed most suitable." The conclusion was reached that the shipowners and operators by entering into this combination had, in so far as the employment of seamen was concerned, surrendered themselves completely to the control of the association. If, for instance, they had accepted such restraint as to the carriage of goods and contracts of transportation with the shippers, placing themselves under obligations to refuse to carry for any person without the previous approval of the associations, it was declared that "the unlawful restraint would be clear. But ships and those who operate them are instrumentalities of commerce and within the commerce clause no less than cargoes." There was therefore a violation of the spirit of the Sherman Act, which has for its purpose the prohibition of "monopolies, contract, and combinations which probably would unduly interfere with the free exercise of their rights by those engaged, or who wish to engage, in trade and commerce—in a word, to preserve the right of freedom to trade."

The acts complained of related to the employment of seamen for service on ships, both instrumentalities in interstate and foreign commerce. "The interference with commerce therefore, was direct and primary." The agreement was a surrender of freedom of action by the owners and operators, resulting in a situation of restraint that is, as the case now stands, in violation of the antitrust act. The decree of dismissal was therefore reversed and the cause remanded to the district court for proceedings in conformity with this opinion. (Same case, 47 Sup. Ct. 125.)

INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES

Strikes and Lockouts in the United States, November, 1926

THE Bureau of Labor Statistics presents below a statement of strikes and lockouts in the United States beginning in the month of November, 1926, in so far as reports thereof have been received by the bureau. Disputes involving fewer than six workers and those lasting less than one day have been omitted where information on this point is reported.

In presenting these figures, it is important to note that the bureau has no machinery for the prompt and full reporting of strikes and lockouts, but depends largely upon newspapers, trade journals, and labor periodicals for the preliminary reports of disputes. These preliminary reports are then followed up by correspondence, and any necessary revision is made. Such revision may change more or less considerably the number of strikes and lockouts as originally recorded, owing to the fact that minor disputes are often late in being reported, but experience has shown that almost always prompt reports are obtained regarding the more important disputes. Also, it must be emphasized that, for the reasons mentioned, the data here presented do not pretend to be absolutely complete or fully accurate. It is believed, however, that practically all of the more significant strikes and lockouts are recorded, and that the information presented is sufficiently accurate to give a fair picture of the situation in the United States in the matter of significant strikes and lockouts.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics solicits the cooperation of employers, labor organizations, and other interested parties in making this compilation of disputes as comprehensive and as accurate as possible.

Strikes and Lockouts Beginning in November, 1926

TABLE 1 shows the number of strikes and lockouts beginning in November, 1926, in comparison with September and October, and also the number of persons involved, to the extent that reports on this point have been received. As already noted, delayed reports usually concern minor disputes.

TABLE 1.—STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS BEGINNING IN SEPTEMBER, OCTOBER, AND NOVEMBER, 1926¹

Month	Total number of disputes ²	Disputes in which number of employees directly involved is known ³		
		Number of strikes and lockouts	Total number of employees involved	Average number of employees per dispute
September, 1926	96	73	26,652	365
October, 1926	68	45	15,309	340
November, 1926	46	37	7,986	216

¹ Data given are subject to revision.

² Excluding those involving fewer than 6 persons.

Classification of Strikes and Lockouts by Industries and by Number of Persons Involved

TABLE 2 shows the distribution of the reported strikes and lockouts for November, 1926, by industries:

TABLE 2.—STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS BEGINNING IN NOVEMBER, 1926, CLASSIFIED BY INDUSTRIES

Industry	Number of disputes	Industry	Number of disputes
Building trades	5	Street railway industry	1
Clothing industry	4	Hotel and restaurant industry	1
Furniture industry	1	Light, heat and power industry	1
Metal trades	5	Firemen	1
Mining, coal	7	Miscellaneous	6
Textile industry	8		
Chauffeurs and teamsters	4	Total	46
Iron and steel industry	2		

The statement below shows in so far as information is available the disputes beginning in November, 1926, classified by number of workers directly involved:

	Number of disputes
6 and under 20 workers	3
20 and under 100 workers	17
100 and under 500 workers	11
500 and under 1,000 workers	4
1,000 and under 5,000 workers	2
Total	37

Principal Strikes and Lockouts Beginning in November, 1926

A BRIEF description is given below of each of the more important strikes and lockouts beginning in November for which detailed information has become available:

Coal miners, Pennsylvania.—A brief strike is recorded of 1,400 coal miners against the Lehigh Valley Coal Co. during the latter part of November, because of the failure of the company to adjust grievances against the method of loading coal. This strike ended by November 29, with the appointment of a committee to decide upon terms of settlement.

Iron and steel workers, Pennsylvania.—The McKeesport Tin Plate Co. was affected by an unsuccessful strike of about 700 employees from November 9 to 11, against extra work without pay, as reported by the press.

Coal miners, Pennsylvania.—About 900 employees of the Pennsylvania Coal Co. struck on November 5 against limiting the day's work to six hours. This strike terminated November 8, but the exact terms are still to be agreed upon.

Metal trades, Ohio.—The Transue & Williams Co. of Alliance, Ohio, was affected by a strike of 500 drop forgers, beginning November 1, on account of working conditions. The matters in dispute were reported as adjusted and the men returned to work on November 29.

Principal Strikes and Lockouts Continuing into November, 1926

A BRIEF description follows of the present status of the more important strikes and lockouts originating prior to November, for which detailed information has become available:

Paper-box makers, New York.—The strike of paper-box makers in New York City which began on October 5 for a 44-hour week, wage increases, etc., is still pending.

Textile workers, Passaic, N. J.—The strike of woolen and worsted textile workers of Passaic and vicinity, which began on January 25, 1926, has been partly settled. In addition to the settlement with the Passaic Worsted Spinning Co. on November 11, heretofore reported, settlements with other mills are reported through the press as follows: Botany Worsted Mills and Garfield Worsted Mills on December 13, affecting about 4,600 employees, and the Dundee Textile Co. of Clifton with from 100 to 350 silk workers, on December 18. The silk workers are reported to have struck on February 25, in sympathy with the others. The terms of these settlements are understood to be similar to those with the Passaic Worsted Spinning Co.

Cloak and suit workers, New York.—The strike of about 40,000 clothing workers in New York City, which began on July 1, 1926, has been practically settled, according to recent press reports, through agreement to submit to arbitration differences with the submanufacturers as to the right of reorganization in shops employing fewer than 35 workers, etc. The decision was reported in the press of December 21, and appears to allow the right of reorganization for shops employing 35 workers on condition that these firms had been in business two years, that they provide 32 weeks' employment, and that after June 1, 1928, only those submanufacturers employing 40 or more workers shall have the reorganization privilege. Shops with less than 35 workers were excluded from reorganization rights.

The agreement of November 13, heretofore reported, related to employees of "inside" and "independent" manufacturers.

Conciliation Work of the Department of Labor in November, 1926

By HUGH L. KERWIN, DIRECTOR OF CONCILIATION

THE Secretary of Labor, through the Conciliation Service, exercised his good offices in connection with 31 labor disputes during November, 1926. These disputes affected a known total of 8,656 employees. The table following shows the name and location of the establishment or industry in which the dispute occurred, the nature of the dispute (whether strike or lockout or controversy not having reached strike or lockout stage), the craft or trade concerned, the cause of the dispute, its present status, the terms of settlement, the date of beginning and ending, and the number of workmen directly and indirectly affected.

On December 1, 1926, there were 51 strikes before the department for settlement and, in addition, 9 controversies which had not reached the strike stage. Total number of cases pending, 60.

LABOR DISPUTES HANDLED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR THROUGH ITS CONCILIATION SERVICE, NOVEMBER, 1926

Company or industry and location	Nature of controversy	Craft concerned	Cause of dispute	Present status and terms of settlement	Duration		Men involved
					Begin-ning	End-ing	
Valley Camp Coal Co., Wheeling, W. Va.	Strike.	Mining.	Organization of miners.	Adjusted. Officers of union declared strike off.	1926 July 1	1926 Nov. 6	250
Public Schools, Erie, Pa.	Threatened strike.	Engineers.	Appointment of chief engineer.	Adjusted. Amicably settled by discussion.	Nov. 2	Nov. 24	200
Selden & Navainsky, Baltimore, Md.	Strike.	Cloak making.	Asked union recognition.	Adjusted. Settled by international union.	Oct. 16	Nov. 30	40
Ritz Shirt Co., Philadelphia, Pa.	do	Shirt making.	Discharge of an employee.	Unable to adjust. Company refused to reinstate the discharged employee.	Nov. 1	Nov. 20	22
English Gannett Co., Everett, Mass.	do	Upholstering.	Asked union recognition.	Adjusted. Half of employees returned under same conditions as before.	Oct. 15	Nov. 1	12
Loew's Theater Building, Canton, Ohio.	Building trades.	Nonunion plumbers and steamfitters employed.	Adjusted. All union crafts employed.	Nov. 3	Nov. 18	(1)	
West Pittston Silk Co., West Pittston, Pa.	do	Employee refused to pay union dues.	Adjusted. Dues paid; strike declared off.	Oct. 27	Nov. 4	53	
St. Louis Screw Co., St. Louis, Mo.	Controversy.	Open or closed shop.	Unable to adjust. Company will follow "American plan."	Oct. 20	do	200	
Armstrong Transfer Co., Boston, Mass.	Strike.	Driving taxis.	Pending. State board handling dispute at present.	(1)	do	(1)	
Pennsylvania Coal Co., Old Forge, Pa.	do	Mining.	Breaker workers given only six hours' work.	Adjusted. Returned; officials to fix terms.	Nov. 5	Nov. 8	900
McKeesport Tin Plate Co., McKeesport, Pa.	do	Tin-plate work.	Pending.	(1)	do	700	
Hudson Coal Co., Archbald, Pa.	do	Mining.	Working conditions.	Adjusted. Returned; officials to fix terms.	Nov. 5	Nov. 10	650
Jordan Parlor Furniture Co., Allentown, Pa.	do	Upholstering.	Wages and working conditions.	Adjusted. Returned without discrimination.	(1)	Nov. 19	50
Ritz Shirt Co., Wilmington, Del.	do	Shirt making.	Open-shop policy of company.	Pending.	(1)	do	40
Shell Oil Co., Seattle, Wash.	Controversy.	Truck sales work.	Unionization of truck salesmen.	do	Nov. 15	do	13
Nell-a-May Co., Chester, Pa.	Strike.	Plush weaving.	Asked increase from 14 cents to 17 cents per yard for weaving plush.	Unclassified. Part of employees returned; company refused to reinstate remainder.	Nov. 9	Nov. 10	17
Veterans' Hospital, San Francisco, Calif.	Controversy.	Building.	Wages and nonunion carpenters.	Pending.	Nov. 1	do	70
Transue Williams Co., Alliance, Ohio.	Strike.	Drop forging.	New working system of company.	Adjusted. Returned under new system with wage guarantee.	Nov. 26	do	450
Bus Transportation, Jersey City, N. J.	do	Driving.	Union-labor dispute.	Unclassified. Returned in five hours without change.	Nov. 6	Nov. 6	23
Sunset Cleaning & Dyeing Co., Long Beach, Calif.	do	Cleaning.	Wages, conditions, and union recognition.	do	do	7	
Yonkers Electric Light & Power Co., Yonkers, N. Y.	do	do	Adjusted. Allowed union recognition.	Nov. 2	Nov. 8	175	
			and wage increase, shorter hours, and raw for 12 hours.			100	

N. J.	Sunset Cleaning & Dyeing Co., Long Beach, Calif.	24590°	Cleaning		Wages, conditions, and union recognition.	Nov. 2	Nov. 8	Nov. 12	Nov. 18	Nov. 20	Nov. 23	Nov. 25
			do	do								
Yorkers Electric Light & Power Co., White Plains, N. Y.	do	do	Driving and line work.	do	Adjusted. Allowed union recognition, and pay for 13 holidays.	do	do	do	do	do	do	do
Dunigan & Hood, Philadelphia, Pa.	do	do	Leather work	do	do	do	do	do	do	do	do	do
Ohio Bell Telephone Co., and Telephone Pole Co., Columbus, Ohio	do	do	Placing of wires	do	do	do	do	do	do	do	do	do
Aspinwall Hospital, Aspinwall, Pa.	do	do	Painting	do	do	do	do	do	do	do	do	do
Granite cutters, New England	do	do	Granite cutting	do	do	do	do	do	do	do	do	do
Lenord Construction Co., Cedar Rapids, Iowa.	do	do	Ironwork	do	do	do	do	do	do	do	do	do
Elliot Construction Co., Des Moines, Iowa.	do	do	Plumbing	do	do	do	do	do	do	do	do	do
Building mechanics, Mt. Vernon, White Plains, and Bedford Hills, N. Y.	do	do	Mechanics	do	do	do	do	do	do	do	do	do
John Gay's Sons, Philadelphia, Pa.	do	do	Carpet weaving	do	do	do	do	do	do	do	do	do
Pennsylvania Coal Co., North Pittston, Pa.	do	do	Mining	do	do	do	do	do	do	do	do	do
Lehigh Valley Coal Co., Pennsylvania.	do	do	do	do	do	do	do	do	do	do	do	do
Total												

1 Not reported.

Strikes in Buenos Aires, 1925

ACCORDING to recent reports¹ on strikes in the Federal capital of Argentina during the year 1925, there were 86 strikes affecting 13,962 workers.

The number of strikes and strikers is shown in the following table, by industries, for the half-year periods:

NUMBER OF STRIKES AND WORKERS INVOLVED IN 1925, BY INDUSTRY

Industry	Strikes		Strikers	
	First half-year	Second half-year	First half-year	Second half-year
Food	2		33	
Textile	3	4	1,041	1,284
Clothing	7	8	546	1,291
Lumber	6	4	121	269
Metallurgy	3	9	132	701
Electro-technical	2	1	349	25
Construction	2	1	60	798
Glass and pottery	4	2	93	35
Paper and box		1		20
Polygraphy	3	7	68	266
Leather		2		527
Transportation	12	2	6,225	67
Others not specified	1		11	
Total	45	41	8,679	5,283

Of the 13,962 strikers 11,085 were men, 2,355 were women, and 522 were minors. The causes of the strikes were questions of wages, hours of labor, workshop organization, general conditions of labor, and miscellaneous questions.

¹ Asociacion del Trabajo. Boletin de Servicios. Buenos Aires, Oct. 20, 1926, p. 463, and Departamento Nacional del Trabajo, Cronica Mensual, Buenos Aires, July, 1925, pp. 1599-1605.

WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR

Salaries of Office Employees in Massachusetts

THE Massachusetts Department of Labor and Industries has recently issued a mimeographed report of a survey of office employees in that State, the data used being as of May 1, 1926. Returns were received from 1,075 establishments, covering 22,427 office workers, of whom 8,182 (36.5 per cent) were males and 14,245 (63.5 per cent) were females. Comparison of these figures with those of the United States Census of 1920 shows that there were at that time in the occupations considered comparable in a general way with those included in this survey 175,611 persons, of whom 72,551 were males and 103,060 were females. The present inquiry covered, therefore, approximately one-eighth (12.8 per cent) of the total number shown in the census reports as in the occupations selected, the number of males included running a little under, and of females a little over this proportion.

As the offices in different lines of business differed widely in the number and sex distribution of their employees, the returns were grouped in eight distinct classifications, with a ninth miscellaneous group to include those not covered elsewhere. The following table shows the number of establishments reporting in each of these groups, with the number of employees, by sex, in each:

CLASSIFICATION OF WORKERS STUDIED, BY OFFICE GROUPS AND SEX

Office group	Number of establish- ments report- ing	Number of office employees represented in returns		
		Males	Females	Total
Banks and trust companies	67	1,938	1,761	3,699
Brokerage, investment, and loan companies	57	391	348	739
Dealers and sales agencies	361	1,424	2,312	3,736
Department and specialty stores	28	38	546	584
Insurance companies and agencies	50	365	1,229	1,594
Manufacturing establishments	277	2,122	4,469	6,591
Printing and publishing establishments	53	200	461	661
Public service corporations	23	1,492	2,157	3,649
Miscellaneous companies	159	212	962	1,174
Total	1,075	8,182	14,245	22,427

It will be seen that manufacturing establishments employed by far the largest group of workers reported upon, not far from one-third (29.4 per cent) of the total number being found here. Three groups of establishments, banks and trust companies, dealers and sales agencies, and public service corporations, accounted each for between 3,000 and 4,000 employees, the number reported by each

being nearly the same. These three, with the manufacturing establishments, accounted for nearly four-fifths (17,675, or 78.8 per cent) of all the employees for whom reports were received. Considered by geographical distribution, by far the largest group of employees—14,146—were reported from Boston; 2,727 from the vicinity of Boston; 1,183 from Brockton, Fall River, and New Bedford; 1,224 from Haverhill, Lawrence, and Lowell; and 3,148 from Springfield and Worcester.

The distribution by sex shows considerable variation according to the kind of establishments reporting. In banks and trust companies and in brokerage, investment, and loan offices male employees were the more numerous, constituting, respectively, 52.4 per cent and 52.9 per cent of the total force. In all the other classes of establishments females greatly outnumbered males, this being especially noticeable in the department and specialty stores, in which they formed 93.5 per cent of the employees.

The occupational distribution was far from uniform. The workers were grouped into four sections, according to occupation, as follows:

	Male	Female	Total
Clerical	5,844	5,829	11,673
Stenographic	193	4,563	4,756
Accounting and bookkeeping	1,889	3,306	5,195
Operating office appliances	256	547	803
Total	8,182	14,245	22,427

The largest group, comprising 52 per cent of the total, is found in clerical occupations, the accountancy and bookkeeping section comes next with 23.2 per cent, the stenographic section, with 21.2 per cent, is almost equal in size, while the section operating office appliances accounts for only 3.6 per cent. With regard to sex distribution, the clerical section shows almost precisely the same proportion of men and women, the stenographic section is almost monopolized by women who form 96 per cent of the total number reported on, in accountancy and bookkeeping men form only a little over a third (36.4 per cent), and in the section operating office appliances they are a slightly smaller proportion, 31.9 per cent.

The distribution of the employees by sex, salary group, and occupational classification was as follows:

CLASSIFICATION OF OFFICE WORKERS BY SEX, OCCUPATION, AND SALARY GROUP

Occupation and salary group	Male		Female		Total	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Clerical section:						
Less than \$16 a week	440	7.5	1,129	19.4	1,569	13.4
\$16 and under \$20	449	7.7	1,714	29.4	2,163	18.5
\$20 and under \$25	684	11.7	1,671	28.7	2,355	20.2
\$25 and under \$30	837	14.3	815	13.9	1,652	14.2
\$30 and under \$40	1,499	25.7	380	6.5	1,879	16.1
\$40 and under \$50	788	13.5	80	1.4	868	7.4
\$50 and over	1,147	19.6	40	.7	1,187	10.2
Total, all wage groups	5,844	100.0	5,829	100.0	11,673	100.0

CLASSIFICATION OF OFFICE WORKERS BY SEX, OCCUPATION, AND SALARY GROUP—Continued

Occupation and salary group	Male		Female		Total	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Stenographic section:						
Less than \$16 a week	14	7.3	391	8.6	405	8.5
\$16 and under \$20	26	13.5	896	19.6	922	19.4
\$20 and under \$25	24	12.4	1,588	34.8	1,612	33.9
\$25 and under \$30	38	19.7	1,122	24.6	1,160	24.4
\$30 and under \$40	54	28.0	485	10.6	539	11.3
\$40 and under \$50	22	11.4	68	1.5	90	1.9
\$50 and over	15	7.8	13	.3	28	.6
Total, all wage groups	193	100.0	4,563	100.0	4,756	100.0
Accounting and bookkeeping section:						
Less than \$16 a week	26	1.4	298	9.0	324	6.2
\$16 and under \$20	81	4.3	705	21.3	786	15.1
\$20 and under \$25	183	9.7	1,139	34.5	1,322	25.4
\$25 and under \$30	276	14.6	692	20.9	968	18.6
\$30 and under \$40	664	35.2	380	11.5	1,044	20.1
\$40 and under \$50	323	17.1	68	2.1	391	7.5
\$50 and over	336	17.8	24	.7	360	6.9
Total, all wage groups	1,889	100.0	3,306	100.0	5,195	100.0
Office appliance section:						
Less than \$16 a week	41	16.0	127	23.2	168	20.9
\$16 and under \$20	40	15.6	199	36.4	239	29.8
\$20 and under \$25	66	25.8	158	28.9	224	27.9
\$25 and under \$30	55	21.5	54	9.9	109	13.6
\$30 and under \$40	50	19.5	9	1.6	59	7.3
\$40 and under \$50	4	1.6			4	.5
\$50 and over						
Total, all wage groups	256	100.0	547	100.0	803	100.0
Total—all sections:						
Less than \$16 a week	521	6.4	1,945	13.7	2,466	11.0
\$16 and under \$20	596	7.3	3,514	24.7	4,110	18.3
\$20 and under \$25	957	11.7	4,556	32.0	5,513	24.6
\$25 and under \$30	1,206	14.7	2,683	18.8	3,889	17.3
\$30 and under \$40	2,267	27.7	1,254	8.8	3,521	15.7
\$40 and under \$50	1,137	13.9	216	1.5	1,353	6.0
\$50 and over	1,498	18.3	77	.5	1,575	7.0
Total, all wage groups	8,182	100.0	14,245	100.0	22,427	100.0

This table shows the familiar difference in the salary level of the sexes. The largest group of male employees, forming a little over a fourth of all the males considered, received \$30 but under \$40 a week; the largest group of female employees, forming a little under one-third of their total, received \$20 but under \$25 a week. One-fourth (25.4 per cent) of the men, against 70.4 per cent of the women received under \$25 a week; 32.2 per cent of the men as against 2 per cent of the women received \$40 or over per week. For both men and women the accountancy and bookkeeping section had the highest proportion of well-paid workers, 70.1 per cent of the men and 14.3 per cent of the women being in the groups receiving \$30 or more per week. For men, the clerical section stood second, 58.8 per cent being in this salary group, while for women, stenography, with 12.4 per cent receiving \$30 or over, came second.

The report goes into the occupational distribution in much detail, listing 38 occupations as found within the general occupational classification, and giving for each of these the distribution of the workers by sex and salary received.

Wages in Chinese Railroad Shops

THE Chinese Economic Bulletin (Peking) of October 2, 1926, presents a table showing maximum and minimum daily wages in the shops of various Chinese railroads. The table is reproduced below with additional columns showing the wage equivalents in United States money:

DAILY WAGES IN CHINESE RAILROAD SHOPS

[Chinese dollar is equivalent to approximately 50 cents in United States money]

Railroad	Location of railroad shops	Number of employees	Wages by day			
			Chinese money		United States money	
			High-est	Low-est	High-est	Low-est
Peking-Mukden Railway manufacturing works	Tangshan	2,943	\$1.95	\$0.25	\$0.975	\$0.125
Peking-Mukden Railway iron works	Shanhaikwan	478	1.55	.16	.775	.08
Peking-Hankow Railway locomotive and car repair shop	Hankow	481	2.10	.40	1.05	.20
Do	Chengchow	188	1.65	.35	.875	.175
Do	Changhsintien	190	2.20	.35	1.10	.175
Pekin-Hankow Railway general repair shop	do	184	1.15	.22	.575	.11
Do	South Bank of Yellow River	43	1.25	.30	.625	.15
Do	Kiang An, Hankow	169	1.25	.25	.625	.125
Peking-Hankow Railway lumber seasoning plant	do	21	1.10	.30	.55	.15
Peking-Hankow machine and electric plant	Changhsintien	70	1.05	.40	.525	.20
Do	South Bank of Yellow River	42	1.20	.45	.60	.225
Peking-Suiyuan Railway machine shop	Nankow	530	1.55	.25	.775	.125
Peking-Suiyuan Railway machine shop, branch	Kalgan	152	1.85	.30	.925	.15
Tientsin-Pukow Railway machine shop	Pucheng	483	1.50	.38	.75	.19
Do	Tsinan	775	1.45	.25	.725	.125
Do	Tientsin	234	1.30	.28	.65	.14
Lung-Hai Railway machine shop	Loyang	529	1.75	.18	.875	.09
Do	Tungshan	472	1.75	.18	.875	.09
Pienlo Railway machine shop	Keifeng	140	1.95	.18	.975	.09
Do	Loyang	148	1.95	.18	.975	.09
Taokow-Chinghua Railway steam machine plant	Siuwu	215	1.85	.25	.925	.125
Canton-Hankow central machine shop	Sukiapang	163	1.70	.32	.85	.16
Keifeng-Pinghsiang Railway machine shop	Anyuan, Pinghsiang	298	2.23	.19	1.115	.095
Chengting-Taiyuan Railway car repair shop	Shihkiachwan	564	1.42	.35	.71	.175
Do	Taiyuan	111	1.42	.35	.71	.175
Do	Yangchuan	75	1.42	.35	.71	.175
Canton-Kowloon locomotive works	Tasatow	138	1.30	.90	.65	.45
Changchow-Amoy Railway machine shop	Amoy	20	1.35	.40	.675	.20
Do	Kiangtungchiao	20	1.35	.40	.675	.20
Shanghai-Hangchow-Ningpo Railway locomotive works	Ningpo	522	2.55	.38	1.275	.19
Shanghai-Hangchow-Ningpo Railway electric plant	Chakow	21	1.25	.30	.625	.15
Shanghai-Hangchow-Ningpo Railway manufacturing works	do	382	1.62	.14	.81	.07
Shanghai-Nanking Manufacturing Works	Shanghai, Nanking, Changchow, Soochow, Wusih, Tanyang, Kunshan, Lungtan, Futsuncheng	1,480	1.45	.24	.725	.12

Earnings and Hours in the English Iron and Steel and Other Metal Industries, 1924

IN PREVIOUS numbers of the Labor Review summaries have been given of parts of the report of an investigation undertaken by the English Government, into hours and earnings in certain industries. The third portion of the report, given in the Ministry of Labor Gazette (London) for August, 1926, deals with the iron, steel, and allied industries. The data, secured through questionnaires addressed to employers, were for four weeks, ending respectively on January 19, April 12, July 12, and October 18, 1924. Replies received from employers in the metal industries covered 3,950 establishments, and an average number of employees, for the four weeks, of 400,563. The average number employed in each of the industries for the four weeks and the proportion of male and female workers were as follows:

TABLE 1.—AVERAGE NUMBER OF WORKERS EMPLOYED IN FOUR WEEKS OF 1924 AND PER CENT OF EACH SEX

Industry	Number employed	Per cent of males	Per cent of females
Pig iron	28,752	99.8	0.2
Smelting, rolling, etc., of iron and steel	155,730	99.0	1.0
Tin plate	22,507	85.5	14.5
Smelting, rolling, and casting of nonferrous metals	28,954	94.5	5.5
Brass founding and finishing	27,622	80.6	19.4
Bedstead	2,358	74.6	25.4
Sheet metal	45,652	63.8	36.2
Wrought-iron and steel tubes	19,723	98.2	1.8
Light castings	20,308	91.5	8.5
Hollow ware	5,192	65.5	34.5
Wire drawing, weaving, etc.	20,399	86.0	14.0
Anchor and chain	2,719	91.6	8.4
Screw, nail, nut, bolt, and rivet	14,671	56.3	43.7
Needles, pins, fishhooks, etc.	5,976	34.0	66.0

As would be expected in a group containing some of the exceedingly heavy industries, male workers far outnumbered the female. In only five instances do the female workers form one-fifth or more of the total force, and the only case in which they reach as much as half is the final group of light miscellaneous products. The proportion in the manufacture of sheet metal (36.2 per cent) seems large, but there is no explanation of the processes in which they are engaged.

Average Weekly Earnings

TABLE 2 shows the weekly earnings, averaged for the four weeks, by sex of worker, and also for the group as a whole regardless of sex. Some of the employers who replied to the questionnaire were unable to give the earnings of men and women separately, so that the data relating to the sexes and those relating to the whole group do not correspond.

TABLE 2.—AVERAGE WEEKLY EARNINGS, BY SEX

[At par shilling=24.3 cents, penny=2.03 cents; exchange rate approximately at par]

Industry	Males		Females		Both sexes	
	Number of workers	Average weekly earnings	Number of workers	Average weekly earnings	Number of workers	Average weekly earnings
Pig iron	28,466	s. d.	57	s. d.	28,752	s. d.
Smelting, rolling, etc., of iron and steel	151,382	63 2	1,506	18 11	155,730	63 1
Tin plate	12,883	62 0	2,181	23 7	22,507	61 5
Smelting, rolling, and casting of nonferrous metals	24,441	73 7	1,416	26 6	28,954	66 5
Brass founding and finishing	16,792	58 7	4,041	25 0	27,622	56 7
Bedstead	1,163	56 7	397	26 10	2,358	44 1
Sheet metal	26,424	55 5	14,962	25 3	45,652	48 9
Wrought-iron and steel tubes	18,395	54 7	344	24 1	19,723	43 11
Light castings	16,459	51 8	1,520	19 4	20,308	53 8
Hollow ware	1,818	51 2	957	24 4	5,192	39 9
Wire drawing, weaving, etc.	15,926	56 4	2,584	24 2	20,399	51 3
Anchor and chain	1,426	55 5	131	19 6	2,719	45 1
Screw, nail, nut, bolt, and rivet	5,602	45 5	4,348	21 11	14,671	35 11
Needles, pins, fishhooks, etc.	1,515	51 6	2,937	22 7	5,976	32 9

A striking feature of this table is the difference shown in the earnings of men and women. In not a single industry do the average earnings of the women reach half of those of the men, and in some cases they sink considerably lower. The highest earnings for men were 73s. 7d. (or about \$17.90) in the tin-plate industry, while for women the highest point reached was 26s. 10d. (\$6.53) in the production of bedsteads.

Normal Weekly Hours of Labor

TABLE 3 shows the proportion of the workers whose normal working hours, in the week ending October 18, 1924, fell within specified groups, and also the average normal weekly hours for each industry.

TABLE 3.—NORMAL WEEKLY HOURS OF LABOR

Industry	Number of workers	Per cent of employees whose normal hours were			Average weekly normal hours
		Under 48	48	Over 48	
Pig iron	28,240	43.1	5.1	51.8	49.9
Smelting, etc., of iron and steel	150,683	96.7	2.0	1.3	44.2
Tin plate	22,332	99.1	.9	—	43.4
Smelting, etc., of nonferrous metals	29,352	78.2	7.8	14.0	47.4
Brass founding and finishing	28,317	95.3	2.5	2.2	47.1
Bedstead	2,387	45.2	29.0	25.8	48.4
Sheet metal	46,166	75.8	19.1	5.1	47.1
Wrought-iron and steel tubes	18,247	97.4	1.9	.7	46.0
Light castings	21,074	96.9	1.8	1.3	47.0
Hollow ware	5,434	96.0	3.8	.2	46.9
Wire drawing, weaving, etc.	20,294	89.3	4.8	5.9	47.1
Anchor and chain	2,516	91.4	6.7	1.9	46.5
Screw, nail, nut, bolt, and rivet	14,545	95.9	1.1	3.0	47.0
Needles, pins, fishhooks, etc.	5,784	83.5	10.8	5.7	47.1

It will be observed that in most industries the overwhelming majority of the employees worked less than 48 hours a week. Even in the few cases where important groups worked longer hours, the normal week for the industry as a whole is apt to fall below 48 hours, exceeding this length in only two instances—pig iron, where over half the 28,000 employees worked a long week, and the manufacture of

bedsteads, where the number of employees is small and the normal week exceeded 48 hours by only 24 minutes.

The shift system is common in many of the metal trades. Table 4 shows in which industries this system prevailed, the number of employees working on shifts, and their division between the two-shift and the three-shift plans.

TABLE 4.—NUMBER OF SHIFT WORKERS

Industry	Number of shift workers covered	Number of shift workers working on—	
		3-shift system	2-shift system
Pig iron	14,790	14,728	62
Smelting, rolling, etc., of iron and steel	76,791	73,304	3,487
Tin plate	12,171	11,612	36
Smelting, rolling, and casting of nonferrous metals	5,104	4,016	1,088
Wrought-iron and steel tube	3,872	1,390	2,482
Wire drawing, weaving, etc.	1,903	966	937

The majority of these shift workers were employed for less than 48 hours a week. The production of pig iron marked an exception to this rule, as here 97.7 per cent of the shift workers were employed for 7 shifts a week, and 97.8 per cent worked over 48 and up to 56 hours a week. In the smelting, etc., of iron and steel 2.1 per cent, in the smelting, etc., of nonferrous metals 46.8 per cent, and in wire drawing and weaving 17 per cent of the shift workers had a normal week of over 48 hours.

Hours Worked and Average Hourly Earnings

TABLE 5 shows, for the workers whose employers supplied data on these points, the average hours worked and the average hourly earnings during the four weeks.

TABLE 5.—HOURS WORKED AND AVERAGE HOURLY EARNINGS

[Penny at par = 2.03 cents; exchange rate about par]

Industry	Number of workers	Average hours worked per week in the 4 weeks	Average hourly earnings in the 4 weeks
Pig iron	13,859	49.6	15.2
Smelting, rolling, etc., of iron and steel	100,410	44.8	16.5
Tin plate	11,790	45.8	17.7
Smelting, rolling, and casting of nonferrous metals	19,627	48.1	14.3
Brass founding and finishing	15,908	46.2	11.4
Bedstead	583	43.4	12.6
Sheet metal	28,091	46.0	11.5
Wrought-iron and steel tubes	11,557	46.3	13.9
Light castings	12,735	45.4	12.7
Hollow ware	2,997	45.8	11.0
Wire drawing, weaving, etc.	11,885	47.1	13.0
Anchor and chain	1,705	41.6	11.9
Screw, nail, nut, bolt, and rivet	10,548	44.7	9.9
Needles, pins, fishhooks, etc.	2,599	42.4	9.0

Not all of the employers could supply data covering these particulars, and therefore the figures as to number of workers here do not correspond with those shown in other tables. The lowest earnings, it will be observed, are found in the industries in which women are employed in considerable numbers.

Extent of Short Time

TABLE 6 shows the average number of workers during the four weeks for whom reports on short time were made, the proportion who, in the week ended October 18, 1924, worked short time, and the average number of hours lost by those on short time. Those who were wholly unemployed in that week are omitted from the table.

TABLE 6.—PER CENT WORKING SHORT TIME, AND HOURS LOST PER WORKER WEEK ENDED OCTOBER 18, 1924

Industry	Number of workers	Per cent on short time	Average hours lost by those on short time
Pig iron	23,136	3.1	20.8
Smelting, rolling, etc., of iron and steel	152,580	15.9	13.9
Tin plate	21,840	4.3	8.9
Smelting, rolling, and casting of nonferrous metals	27,618	4.8	8.8
Brass founding and finishing	26,335	3.6	9.4
Bedstead	2,279	6.2	12.1
Sheet metal	44,153	9.2	8.1
Wrought-iron and steel tubes	18,145	15.9	9.6
Light castings	19,809	12.1	8.2
Hollow ware	5,162	5.2	12.8
Wire drawing, Weaving, etc.	19,109	7.3	12.6
Anchor and chain	2,270	27.4	13.7
Screw, nail, nut, bolt, and rivet	14,307	30.0	5.4
Needles, pins, fishhooks, etc.	5,795	26.9	12.8

It will be noticed that the loss of time involved was, in most of the industries, serious. As the normal week was in most cases under 48 hours, short time amounting to anywhere from 8 up to 20 hours means a heavy loss to the worker, and when, as in some of the industries, the percentage of workers affected is considerable, the loss is doubly serious.

Wages and Hours in Great Britain at the Beginning of 1926

BEFORE the war, the English Government published at intervals of approximately one year, an abstract of labor statistics of the United Kingdom, containing a summary of official statistics relating to labor. After the issue of the seventeenth edition, early in 1915, this was suspended on grounds of economy. Recently, the eighteenth edition, compiled by the Labor Ministry, has been issued, dealing with such subjects as population, employment, unemployment and unemployment insurance, wages and hours of labor, strikes and lockouts, and the like. The section on hours and wages gives a number of tables, presenting the facts concerning different industries, occupations, and trades.

Wages and weekly hours, as recognized by the employers' associations and the trade-unions concerned, covering a number of industries are given for 40 cities and towns throughout Great Britain. Table 1 gives these data for three cities, selected as being representative, and in addition shows the range of wages presented in the data for the 40 cities. The hours, where no specific locality is mentioned, are those prevailing generally.

TABLE I.—TIME RATES OF WAGES AND WEEKLY HOURS OF LABOR IN CERTAIN INDUSTRIES, OCCUPATIONS AND DISTRICTS, JANUARY 1, 1926

(Except where otherwise indicated, the rates and hours are those recognized by the employers' associations and the trade-unions concerned. Rates are per week, unless otherwise stated. The range is for the rates of 40 cities.)

Industry and occupation	London ¹	Glasgow	Belfast	Range			Full-time hours per week
				Lowest	Highest	Range	
Engineering ²							
Fitters and turners	60 11 (\$14.82)	56 11/2 (\$13.66)	52 0 (\$12.65)	67 6 (\$16.42)	47		
Iron molders (sand)	60 11 (\$14.82)	62 10 1/2 (\$15.30)	49 0 (\$11.92)	67 6 (\$16.42)	47		
Laborers ³	43 3 1/4 (\$10.53)	40 6 (\$9.85)	37 0 (\$9.00)	50 0 (\$12.17)	47		
Electrical installation: Wiremen, etc. (per hour)	22 (\$0.446)	42 0 (\$10.22)	18 1/2 (\$0.375)	18 1/2 (\$0.370)	16 3/4 (\$0.340)	22 (\$0.446)	
Vehicle building: Skilled men (per hour)	18 1/2 (\$0.375)	18 (\$0.365)	19 1/2 (\$0.395)	17 (\$0.345)	19 1/2 (\$0.396)	22 (\$0.446)	47
Ship building and repairing ⁴							
Shipwrights ⁵							
New work	69 0 (\$16.79)	56 6 (\$13.75)	58 0 (\$14.11)	56 6 (\$13.75)	58 0 (\$14.11)	60 0 (\$17.03)	47
Repair work		58 9 (\$14.30)	60 3 (\$14.66)	56 6 (\$13.75)	70 0 (\$17.03)	70 0 (\$17.03)	47
Ship joiners ⁶							
New work	69 0 (\$16.79)	59 0 (\$14.36)	60 9 (\$14.78)	59 0 (\$14.36)	60 9 (\$14.78)	60 9 (\$14.78)	47
Repair work	54 0 (\$13.14)	61 0 (\$14.84)	63 0 (\$15.33)	57 0 1/2 (\$14.00)	78 4 (\$19.06)	78 4 (\$19.06)	47
Laborers ⁷		37 6 (\$9.12)	38 6 (\$9.37)	37 6 (\$9.12)	54 0 (\$13.14)	54 0 (\$13.14)	47
Flour milling:							
Rollermen ⁸							
73 0 (\$17.76)	73 0 (\$17.76)	53 6 (\$14.23)	58 6 (\$14.23)	73 0 (\$17.76)	73 0 (\$17.76)	73 0 (\$17.76)	44
Laborers ⁹							
57 0 (\$13.87)	57 0 (\$13.87)	47 6 (\$11.56)	47 6 (\$11.56)	57 0 (\$13.87)	57 0 (\$13.87)	57 0 (\$13.87)	44
Baking:							
Fore hands	68 0 (\$16.55)			63 8 (\$15.49)	76 3 (\$18.55)	76 3 (\$18.55)	47
Table hands	72 0 (\$17.52)			72 0 (\$17.52)	57 6 (\$13.99)	78 6 (\$19.10)	47
	776 0 (\$18.49)	75 0 (\$18.25)					
	760 0 (\$14.60)						

¹ The rates given for engineering in most cases and for shipbuilding and repairing except at London, Cardiff, Liverpool, and Belfast are the minima recognized by the trade-unions concerned.

² In marine engineering establishments, rates are 58s. 9d. (\$14.30) for fitters; 58s. 9d. (\$15.51) for turners; 63s. 9d. (\$15.51) for iron molders, and 39s. 3d. (\$9.55) for laborers.

³ London, 45.

⁴ For Grade I mills (over 1,000 inches roller contact).

⁵ Shift workers.

⁶ Day workers.

⁷ Rates paid by the cooperative societies are 5s. (\$1.22) higher.

⁸ Generally 48 in England and Wales; 44 to 47 in Scotland; 47 in Belfast.

TABLE 1.—TIME RATE OF WAGES AND WEEKLY HOURS OF LABOR IN CERTAIN INDUSTRIES, OCCUPATIONS AND DISTRICTS, JANUARY 1, 1926—Continued

Industry and occupation	London		Glasgow		Belfast		Range		Full-time hours per week		
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	Lowest	Highest			
Furniture (per hour):											
Cabinetmakers	21	(\$0.426)	18½	(\$0.375)	19	(\$0.386)	17	(\$0.345)	21	(\$0.426)	
Upholsterers	21	(\$0.426)	18½	(\$0.375)	19	(\$0.386)	17	(\$0.345)	21	(\$0.426)	
Printing and bookbinding:											
Hand compositors (book and job)	89	0	(\$21.66)	77	6	(\$18.86)	74	6	(\$15.94)	89	0
Bookbinders and machine rulers	80	0	(\$19.47)	76	0	(\$18.40)	74	6	(\$15.94)	80	0
General assistants, book and job	53	6	(\$13.02)	53	6	(\$13.02)	49	6	(\$12.04)	57	6
Road transport:											
Drivers of one-horse vehicles	57	0	(\$13.87)	54	0	(\$13.14)	57	0	(\$13.87)	50	0
Drivers of auto vehicles (over 2 tons)	58	0	(\$14.11)	58	0	(\$14.11)	57	0	(\$13.87)	50	0
Building (per hour):	72	0	(\$17.52)	63	0	(\$15.33)	57	0	(\$13.87)	73	0
Craftsmen (other than painters):	16 21½	(\$0.456)	11 20	(\$0.406)	11 21	(\$0.426)	16 ½	(\$0.335)	21 ½	(\$0.436)	
Painters	16 20½	(\$0.416)	20	(\$0.406)	21	(\$0.426)	16 ½	(\$0.335)	21	(\$0.426)	
Painters	16 16½	(\$0.336)	15 ½	(\$0.309)	13	(\$0.264)	12 ½	(\$0.233)	16 ½	(\$0.335)	
Street railways:	64	0	(\$15.57)	56	0	(\$13.63)	53	0	(\$12.90)	51	0
Motormen 14	64	0	(\$15.57)	64	0	(\$15.57)	65	0	(\$15.82)	59	6
Conductors 16	73	0	(\$17.76)	64	0	(\$15.57)	60	0	(\$12.41)	64	0
Local authority services: Laborers (nontrading departments)	16 62 2	(\$15.13)	55	0	(\$13.38)	50	0	(\$12.17)	42 0	(\$10.22)	
									44 0	(\$10.71)	
									62 8	(\$15.25)	
									44-48		

⁸ For a week of 42 hours. A rate 5 s. (\$1.22) higher is payable when the hours are over 42 and up to 48.

¹⁰ For an area within a radius of 12 to 15 miles from Charing Cross the rate is 2s. (50.4258).

¹¹ The rate for plasterers is 21 d. (\$0.4258).

¹² The rate for plumbers is 21½ d. (\$0.4359).

¹³ In 18 of the 40 cities reported on, hours during statutory summer time are 46½, in 1 they are 44 or 46½, and in 21 they are 44. For the rest of the year they are in all cases 44.

¹⁴ The lower are the starting rates, the higher those paid after a certain length of service.

¹⁵ In a few boroughs different rates are paid.

Table 2 shows rates of wages and hours of labor in certain industries and occupations in which either a national agreement sets the conditions for the whole country, as in the case of the boot and shoe workers and the railway employees, or where custom has set a uniform rate, as in the case of the police.

TABLE 2.—TIME RATES OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR RECOGNIZED IN CERTAIN INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS, JANUARY 1, 1926

Industry and occupation	Recognized time rate of wages
Boot and shoe manufacture (minimum rates):	
Male workers, heel-building department and stock and shoe rooms—	<i>Per week</i>
21 years.....	50 0 (\$12.17)
22 years.....	57 0 (\$13.87)
Male workers, other manufacturing departments—	
21 years.....	53 0 (\$12.90)
22 years.....	60 0 (\$14.60)
Female workers, closing and heel-building departments and stock and shoe rooms—	
18 years.....	25 6 (\$6.20)
19 years.....	31 0 (\$7.54)
20 years.....	36 0 (\$8.76)
Paper manufacture (minimum rates):	
Machine men and beater men—	<i>Per hour</i>
North and south of England.....	1 6 (\$0.365)
West of England and Scotland.....	1 5 (\$0.346)
Laborers, etc., shift work—	
North and south of England.....	1 1½ (\$0.274)
West of England and Scotland.....	1 0½ (\$0.253)
Laborers, etc., day work—	
North and south of England.....	0 11¾ (\$0.241)
West of England and Scotland.....	0 10¾ (\$0.221)
Police service ¹ —constables:	<i>Per week</i>
On appointment (probation).....	70 0 (\$17.03)
After 1 year (unless probation is extended).....	72 0 (\$17.52)
After 2 years from appointment.....	74 0 (\$18.01)
After 3 years.....	76 0 (\$18.49)
After 4 years.....	78 0 (\$18.98)
After 5 years.....	80 0 (\$19.47)
After 6 years ²	82 0 (\$19.95)
After 7 years ²	84 0 (\$20.44)
After 8 years ²	86 0 (\$20.93)
After 9 years ²	88 0 (\$21.41)
After 10 years ²	90 0 (\$21.90)
Dock labor (minimum rates):	<i>Per day</i>
Ordinary laborers—	
Large ports.....	12 0 (\$2.92)
Small ports.....	11 0 (\$2.68)
Intermediate ports.....	11 0 (\$2.68)
Railway service (standard rates, inclusive of sliding-scale bonus): ³	<i>Per week</i>
Porters (grade 1).....	50 0 (\$12.17)
Porters (grade 2).....	46 0 (\$11.19)
Ticket collectors—	
Class 1.....	58 0 (\$14.11)
Class 2.....	54 0 (\$13.14)
Guards (passenger and freight)—	
First and second years.....	50 0 (\$12.17)
Third and fourth years.....	55 0 (\$13.38)
Fifth year.....	60 0 (\$14.60)
Sixth year.....	65 0 (\$15.82)

¹ The rates quoted are those adopted by all the authorities in Great Britain. In addition to the rates quoted, an allowance of 1s. a week for boots is made by the majority of the authorities, together with rent allowance where quarters are not provided. A deduction of 2½ per cent is made for contribution to the pension fund, together with a supplementary deduction of a further 2½ per cent, and deductions where quarters are provided.

² Subject to the provision that a constable with not less than 5 years' service is eligible for the grant of a special increment, under certain conditions as to conduct and qualifications and that a further special increment may be granted after another year. It is thus possible for a constable to reach the rate of 90s. after 8 years' service.

³ Subject to good conduct and efficiency.

⁴ For drivers of shunting engines, not performing train miles or working with a brake van, for drivers of shed yard engines and for men engaged in the preparing and disposal of engines, the maximum rate is 84s. payable in the fifth year and upward, except in the case of men in receipt of 90s. at January, 1924, who continue to receive that amount, and those who qualify for 90s. by reason of the performance of 1313 main-line turns of duty.

⁵ London, 48s. (\$11.68).

TABLE 2.—TIME RATES OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR RECOGNIZED IN CERTAIN INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS, JANUARY 1, 1926—Continued

Industry and occupation	Recognized time rate of wages
Railway service (standard rates, inclusive sliding-scale bonus)—Continued.	
Shunters (passenger and freight):	
Class 1	65 0 (\$15.82)
Class 2	60 0 (\$14.60)
Class 3	55 0 (\$13.38)
Class 4	50 0 (\$12.17)
Engine drivers ⁶ :	
First and second years	72 0 (\$17.52)
Third and fourth years	78 0 (\$18.98)
Fifth year	84 0 (\$20.44)
Sixth year	90 0 (\$21.90)
Firemen ⁶ :	
First and second years	57 0 (\$13.87)
Third and fourth years	63 0 (\$15.33)
Fifth to tenth year	66 0 (\$16.06)
Eleventh year	72 0 (\$17.52)
Station foremen—	
Class 1	65 0 (\$15.82)
Class 2	58 0 (\$14.11)
Yard foremen—	
Class 1	75 0 (\$18.25)
Class 2	70 0 (\$17.03)
Merchant shipping service (standard rates): ⁷	
Able seamen, sailors, seamen, and deckhands	£ s. d.
Firemen	9 0 0 (\$43.80)
Ordinary seamen—	9 10 0 (\$46.23)
12 to 24 months' service	4 10 0 (\$21.90)
24 months' service and over	5 17 6 (\$28.59)
Trimmers	10 0 0 (\$48.67)

⁶ Where the mileage during any turn of duty exceeds a certain number of miles, extra payment is made.⁷ With free food in addition.

Table 3 shows the minimum time rates for adult workers set by trade boards in the various trades coming under the operation of the trade board acts of 1909 and 1918.

TABLE 3.—MINIMUM TIME RATES OF WAGES, JANUARY 1, 1926, FIXED FOR ADULT WORKERS IN CERTAIN TRADES, UNDER TRADE BOARDS ACTS OF 1909 AND 1918

[The rates quoted apply to the lowest grades of experienced adult male and female workers. Except where otherwise indicated the rates are operative at the age of 21 in the case of males and 18 in the case of females]

Trade	General minimum hourly time rates					Weekly hours of labor for which rates are normally payable	
	Males		Females				
Aerated waters:							
England and Wales	1	0½	25.34	6½	13.18	48	
Scotland—							
Orkney and Shetlands	0	11½	23.31	5½	11.15	48	
Rest of Scotland	1	0½	25.34	6½	13.18	48	
Boot and floor polish	1	1½	27.37	7½	15.20	48	
Boot and shoe repairing	1	3	30.41	10½	21.29	48	
Brush and broom	0	11½	23.31	6½	13.69	48	
Button making	1	1½	27.37	6½	13.18	48	
Chain ¹	1	4½	32.95	6½	13.44	48	
Coffin furniture and cerement making:							
Coffin furniture	1	2½	30.03	6½	13.70	47	
Cerement making				7½	15.20	47	

¹ At 21 years.

² The minimum rates in the chain and lace finishing trades are not fixed by reference to sex. The rates shown under the column "Females" are those applicable to work normally performed by women, and the rates shown under "Males" are those applicable to work normally performed by men.

³ At 24 years.

TABLE 3.—MINIMUM TIME RATES OF WAGES, JANUARY 1, 1926, FIXED FOR ADULT WORKERS IN CERTAIN TRADES, UNDER TRADE BOARDS ACTS OF 1909 AND 1918—Continued

Trade	General minimum hourly time rates						Weekly hours of labor for which rates are normally payable
	Males			Females			
	s.	d.	Cents	d.	Cents		
Corset							
Cotton waste reclamation:							
England and Wales	1	0	24.33	7	14.19	48	
Scotland	1	0	24.33	6½	13.69	48	
Dressmaking and women's light clothing (England and Wales):							
Retail bespoke section	1	0	24.33	6½	12.68	48	
Other sections	1	0	24.33	7	14.19	48	
Dressmaking and women's light clothing (Scotland):							
Retail bespoke section	1	2	28.39	7	14.19	46	
Other sections	1	2	28.39	6½	15.20	46	
Flax and hemp	0	10½	22.14	6½	13.18	46	
Fur	1	2	28.39	8½	17.74	48	
General waste materials reclamation	0	11	22.30	6½	13.69	48	
Hair, bass and fiber	0	11½	22.81	6½	13.69	48	
Hat, cap, and millinery:							
England and Wales	1	1	26.36	7	14.19	48	
Scotland	1	2	28.39	7½	15.20	46	
Wholesale cloth hat and cap section	1	2	28.39	7	14.19	46	
Other sections	1	2	28.39	7½	15.20	46	
Hollow ware	0	11½	23.31	6½	13.69	47	
Jute	0	10½	20.60	6½	13.18	48	
Lace finishing ²	(?)			6½	12.68	—	
Laundry:							
Cornwall and North of Scotland	1	1½	27.37	6½	13.18	48	
Rest of Great Britain	1	1½	27.37	7	14.19	48	
Linen and cotton handkerchiefs and household goods and linen piece goods	1	0	24.33	6½	13.18	48	
Made-up textiles	0	10½	21.80	6½	12.68	48	
Milk distribution:							
England and Wales	0	10½	21.29	6½	13.44	48	
Scotland	1	1	26.36	7½	15.20	48	
Ostrich and fancy feather and artificial flower	1	2	28.39	8½	17.49	48	
Paper bag	0	11½	23.56	6½	12.68	48	
Paper box	1	0	24.33	7	14.19	48	
Perambulator and invalid carriage	1	1	27.88	7½	15.48	48	
Pin, hook and eye and snap fastener	0	10½	21.80	6½	13.18	47	
Ready-made and wholesale bespoke tailoring	0	11½	23.82	7	14.19	48	
Retail bespoke tailoring	1	0	24.33	7½	15.20	48	
Rope, twine, and net	0	10	20.28	6½	12.68	48	
Sack and bag	0	11½	23.31	6½	13.18	48	
Shirtmaking	1	2	28.39	7	14.19	48	
Stamped or pressed metal wares	0	11	22.30	6½	13.18	47	
Sugar confectionery and food preserving	3	1	24.33	6½	13.69	48	
Tin box	1	1	26.36	7½	14.70	48	
Tobacco	1	3½	31.17	9½	19.52	48	
Toy	1	0½	25.34	6½	13.69	48	
Wholesale mantel and costume	4	0	11½	23.31	7	14.19	48

¹At 21 years.²The minimum rates in the chain and lace finishing trades are not fixed by reference to sex. The rates shown under the column "Females" are those applicable to work normally performed by women, and the rates shown under "Males" are those applicable to work normally performed by men.³At 24 years.⁴At 22 years.⁵According to population.

The wages of coal miners are handled in the abstract from two standpoints, the average earnings per man-shift worked, and the average wages cost per ton of coal commercially disposable. These data are compiled from the annual reports of the secretary of mines and the quarterly statistical summaries issued by the mines department. The earnings per man-shift are given for each mining district, by quarters, from the beginning of 1920 to the end of 1925; the wage cost per ton is given by quarters from July, 1921, to December, 1925.

From these figures, Table 4 has been compiled, giving the average earnings per man-shift for the whole country for June, 1914 (these figures having been compiled by the Mining Association of Great Britain), and for the quarter ending June 30 for each year from 1920 to 1925, inclusive. Figures are lacking for 1921, owing to the coal stoppage of that year, which tied up production for the quarter selected. This particular quarter was taken as showing the situation in 1925 before it was affected by the Government's subvention. The wages cost per ton of coal commercially disposable is given for the same quarter from 1922 to 1925, inclusive.

TABLE 4.—AVERAGE EARNINGS PER MAN-SHIFT WORKED, AT COAL MINES, AND AVERAGE WAGES COST PER TON OF COAL DISPOSABLE COMMERCIALLY

Period	Average earnings per man-shift worked	Wages cost per ton of coal commercially disposable	
		s.	d.
June, 1914.	6 5 $\frac{1}{4}$ (\$1.58)		
Quarter ending—			
June 30, 1920.	16 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ (\$4.11)		
June 30, 1922 ¹ .	10 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ (\$2.48)	12	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ (\$3.07)
June 30, 1923.	9 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ (\$2.39)	11	11 $\frac{1}{2}$ (\$2.91)
June 30, 1924.	10 11 $\frac{1}{4}$ (\$2.66)	13	8 (\$3.33)
June 30, 1925.	10 6 $\frac{1}{4}$ (\$2.57)	13	0 (\$3.16)

¹ From April to June, 1921, production of coal at almost all mines was suspended and particulars as to wages and cost are not available.

An important table of the report shows the relative level of wages in certain occupations and industries on July 31, 1914, and at the end of each year from 1914 to 1925, inclusive. This is too long to be reproduced here in its entirety, but Table 5 gives the figures at the end of 1914, when the pre-war wages had hardly begun to be affected, on December 31, 1920, when wages had reached their peak, and on December 31, 1925, the latest date available. The cotton and woolen industries, textile bleaching and dyeing, and coal mining have been omitted from this table, as in these cases the changes are expressed as percentage additions to or subtractions from the standard rates or the pre-war figures, these bases not being given.

TABLE 5.—RELATIVE LEVEL OF RATES OF WAGES FOR ADULT WORKERS IN CERTAIN OCCUPATIONS AT THE END OF 1914, 1920, AND 1925

Industry and occupation	Dec. 31, 1914		Dec. 31, 1920		Dec. 31, 1925	
	Per week		Per week		Per week	
	s. d.	(¹)	s. d.	(¹)	s. d.	(¹)
Agriculture (average rate):						
Ordinary male laborers ² .	46	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	(\$11.41)	31	5	(\$7.64)
Engineering (average of rates in 16 principal centers):						
Fitters and turners.	39	5	(\$9.59)	89	7	(\$21.80)
Pattern makers.	42	4	(\$10.34)	94	4	(\$22.95)
Iron molders.	41	8	(\$10.14)	93	6	(\$22.75)
Laborers.	23	0	(\$5.60)	70	9	(\$17.22)
Shipbuilding (average, 9 principal centers):						
Shipwrights.	41	4	(\$10.06)	91	3	(\$22.20)
Ship joiners.	40	0	(\$9.73)	101	4	(\$24.66)
Laborers.	22	10	(\$5.56)	70	5	(\$17.13)
Boot and shoe making: ³						
Men, heel building and stock and shoe rooms.	27	0	(\$6.57)	65	0	(\$15.82)
Women.	17	0	(\$4.14)	40	0	(\$9.73)
	18	0	(\$4.38)			

¹ These averages include the value of certain allowances in kind.

² Not reported.

³ 1914 rates were adopted in 1914 to be effective in 1915; the figures for 1920 and 1925 represent the national agreed minimum time rates.

TABLE 5.—RELATIVE LEVEL OF RATES OF WAGES FOR ADULT WORKERS IN CERTAIN OCCUPATIONS AT THE END OF 1914, 1920, AND 1925—Continued

Industry and occupation	Dec. 31, 1914	Dec. 31, 1920	Dec. 31, 1925
Baking (average, 26 large towns):			
Table hands	<i>Per week</i> s. d. 30 2 (\$7.34)	<i>Per week</i> s. d. 82 11 (\$20.18)	<i>Per week</i> s. d. 64 9 (\$15.76)
Furniture (average, 20 large towns):			
Cabinetmakers	39 5 (\$9.59)	101 3 (\$24.64)	74 6 (\$18.13)
Upholsterers	38 8 (\$9.41)	101 1 (\$24.00)	74 4 (\$18.09)
French polishers	37 5 (\$9.10)	101 1 (\$24.60)	74 3 (\$18.07)
Printing and bookbinding (average, 26 large towns):			
Hand compositors (book and job)	35 7 (\$8.66)	93 3 (\$22.69)	73 10 (\$17.97)
Bookbinders and machine rulers	33 11 (\$8.25)	93 4 (\$22.71)	73 4 (\$17.84)
Building (average, 39 large towns):			
Bricklayers	<i>Per hour</i> 9.9 (\$0.201)	<i>Per hour</i> 27.5 (\$0.558)	<i>Per hour</i> 19.9 (\$0.404)
Masons	9.8 (\$0.199)	27.5 (\$0.558)	20.0 (\$0.406)
Carpenters and joiners	9.8 (\$0.199)	27.4 (\$0.556)	19.9 (\$0.404)
Plumbers	9.6 (\$0.195)	27.9 (\$0.566)	19.9 (\$0.404)
Plasterers	9.8 (\$0.199)	27.4 (\$0.556)	20.0 (\$0.406)
Painters	8.8 (\$0.179)	27.2 (\$0.552)	19.8 (\$0.401)
Laborers	6.6 (\$0.134)	23.9 (\$0.485)	15.1 (\$0.306)
Electrical installation (average, 12 large towns):			
Wiremen	<i>Per week</i> s. d. 39 6 (\$9.61)	<i>Per week</i> s. d. 104 9 (\$25.49)	<i>Per week</i> s. d. 75 10 (\$18.45)
Railway service:			
Engine drivers *	42 6 (\$10.34)	88 0 (\$21.41) 106 0 (\$25.79)	72 0 (\$17.52) to to
Goods porters (industrial areas)	25 0 (\$6.08)	71 6 (\$17.40)	90 0 (\$21.90)
Passenger porters (class 2, industrial areas)	22 2 (\$5.39)	67 0 (\$16.30)	50 0 (\$12.17)
Permanent way laborers (industrial areas)	25 0 (\$6.08)	71 6 (\$17.40)	46 0 (\$11.19)
Permanent way gangers (industrial areas)	29 0 (\$7.06)	77 0 (\$18.74)	50 0 (\$12.17)
Tramways (average, 52 large towns):			
Motormen	30 11 (\$7.52)	73 8 (\$17.92)	59 9 (\$14.54)
Conductors	27 5 (\$6.67)	70 3 (\$17.09)	56 2 (\$13.67)
Road transport (average, 12 large towns):			
One-horse carters	25 7 (\$6.23)	68 5 (\$16.65)	53 2 (\$12.94)
Shipping (predominant or standard rates): ⁷			
Able seamen	<i>Per month</i> s. d. 100 0 (\$24.33) to	<i>Per month</i> s. d. 290 0 (\$70.56)	<i>Per month</i> s. d. 180 0 (\$43.80)
Firemen	⁸ 130 0 (\$31.63) ⁸ 110 0 (\$26.77) to	⁸ 300 0 (\$73.00)	⁸ 190 0 (\$46.23)
Dock labor (average, 10 large ports):			
General cargo workers	<i>Per day</i> s. d. 6 1 (\$1.48)	<i>Per day</i> s. d. 16 2 (\$3.93)	<i>Per day</i> s. d. 12 3 (\$2.98)
Local authorities (nontrading services), (average, 28 large towns):			
Laborers	<i>Per week</i> s. d. 26 9 (\$6.51)	<i>Per week</i> s. d. 74 8 (\$18.17)	<i>Per week</i> s. d. 53 4 (\$12.98)
Estimated average per cent of increase in weekly full-time wage rates generally, compared with July, 1914	1 to 2	170 to 180	75

* Computed by multiplying hourly rates by the average number of hours in a week, allowing for difference in summer and winter working time.

For 1914, the figures used are the estimated averages of rates actually paid; for 1920 and 1925 they are the agreed standard rates.

⁶ In addition to rates shown, an extra payment is made to those performing over a certain mileage a day.

⁷ Free food provided in addition to the rates quoted.

⁸ Predominant rates at the principal ports.

⁹ Agreed standard rates.

Agricultural Wages

AGRICULTURAL wages are given at considerable length. Minimum rates are set by local agricultural wage boards operating in each county or district. For ordinary farm laborers the minima thus set range, in the case of men, from 28s. to 42s. a week; in the case of women, from 4½d. to 6d. an hour. For men, the average is 31s. 5d. per week. Weekly hours for men range from 48 to 60; in summer, 50, 52, and 54 are the commonest hours; in winter, 48 is the most frequent limit, in only two cases winter hours exceeding 54. For women, the range is from 44 to 54 hours. These rates are for men aged 21 or over, and for women aged 18 or over.

Polish Court Decision on Holidays with Pay

THERE has been some controversy in Poland in regard to the law of May 16, 1922, providing for annual holidays with pay for those employed in commerce and industry. The act does not specify whether a worker who is dismissed prior to the date at which he would be entitled to annual leave can claim indemnity for the holiday to which he would have the right had his employment been continued. According to a recent opinion of the Polish Central Union of Industry, Commerce, Mining, and Finance,¹ a worker who leaves his employment, regardless of the reason therefor, before his holiday period forfeits all his rights under the act. The chief inspector of labor, however, took the position that a worker has a right to an annual holiday and that such holiday should be paid for in full if a worker is discharged through no fault of his own before his leave period.

The matter was brought before the Warsaw Court of Appeal, which on September 25, 1926, handed down a decision that a worker who made claim for an indemnity for a holiday after 10 months' service had a right only to a payment in proportion to his length of employment.

¹ International Labor Office. *Industrial and Labor Information*, Geneva, Nov. 1, 1926, pp. 199, 200.

STABILIZATION OF EMPLOYMENT

New York Headgear Workers' Unemployment Fund

THE present article summarizes a report on the unemployment fund of the Cloth Hat, Cap, and Millinery Workers' International Union, published in the October 29, 1926, issue of *The Headgear Worker*, the official organ of that union. By way of preface to this summary, the following provision is reproduced from the two-year agreement, effective July 1, 1924, between the Cloth Hat and Cap Manufacturers' Association and the Joint Council of New York comprising locals 1, 2, 3, 17, 23, 30, and 40 of the United Cloth Hat and Cap Makers of North America¹ (since June 30, 1925, the Cloth Hat, Cap and Millinery Workers' International Union):

(a) The association agrees that every one of its members shall send to the Joint Council of New York of the United Cloth Hat and Cap Makers of North America on each and every pay day during the life of this agreement a sum equal to 3 per cent of the pay roll for that particular week, covering all the workers coming under the terms of this agreement. These payments shall be by check made payable to the Joint Council of Greater New York of the United Cloth Hat and Cap Makers of North America, and shall be accompanied by a statement on a form supplied by the union, setting forth a list of the workers, the amount of wages paid to each, and the total sum of wages paid for that week, thereby supplying the data on which the 3 per cent payment for the week in question is being made.

(b) These payments shall begin as soon as the joint council shall make the arrangements for the receiving of moneys, which shall in no event be later than September 1, 1924.

(c) The sums of money thus received by the joint council are to be used in its discretion in such ways or forms as it may deem necessary for the payment of unemployment benefit to the members of Locals Nos. 1, 2, 3, 17, 23, 30, and 40 of the United Cloth Hat and Cap Makers of North America, and for no other purpose, except incidental expenses that may be incurred in the administration of this unemployment fund.

(d) In arranging for the payment of the weekly sums by the members of the association as herein described, it is not intended that either the association or the members of the association shall have any right, property, or interest in the funds accumulating from such payments, and shall incur no other responsibility in connection with the disbursement of the said funds over and beyond the obligation to make the weekly payment of the sum herein specified, namely, a weekly payment of a sum equal to 3 per cent of the pay roll of the workers coming under the agreement. Nor is it intended that any worker employed by the members of the association shall in any way acquire specific rights, property, or interest in the said fund, but that the Joint Council of New York of the United Cloth Hat and Cap Makers shall be deemed to have completely fulfilled the requirements of this provision of the agreement as far as the association or any of its members are concerned, or any individual worker working for such firms by using the said fund for the payment of unemployment benefit to members of the locals herein mentioned under such arrangements as the said joint council may agree upon.

According to Mr. J. M. Budish, chairman of the unemployment fund committee, \$86,602 was accumulated as a reserve for the fund

¹ See *Labor Review* for August, 1924, pp. 132, 133.

from September 12, 1924, when the employers made their first contribution, to July 1, 1925. From this latter date to June 30, 1926, when trade was less brisk, the contributions on the 3 per cent basis aggregated \$78,606. The total interest received by the fund for the approximately 22 months covered by the report amounted to \$4,159. This sum combined with the contributions for the same period made a total income of \$169,367.

Benefit payments were begun on July 1, 1925, and in the first year amounted to \$65,383, which sum was paid to 1,495 persons (1,287 males and 208 females) and represented 6,614 weeks of unemployment, while the administrative expense for the 22 months was only \$7,159, or a little over 4 per cent of the total income. On July 1, 1926, the net balance in the bank was \$96,825.

This unemployment insurance system has "proved to be a potent safeguard for the union standards and conditions of the entire membership."

The new collective agreement in the headgear industry² which is to terminate June 30, 1929, includes a provision for an unemployment fund similar to the provisions quoted above with an additional paragraph which reads as follows:

An advisory board consisting of the president and secretary of the association, the general secretary of the Cloth Hat, Cap, and Millinery Workers International Union, the secretary of the joint council, and the chairman of the board of adjustment is hereby created. The advisory board shall cooperate with the union and perform functions in connection with the unemployment fund not in conflict with the foregoing provisions of this article. The chairman of the board of adjustment shall be afforded all facilities by the union to ascertain whether the letter and the spirit of such agreement are being carried out.

Employment Exchanges, Unemployment Insurance, and Training for Unemployed in England

THE report of the English Ministry of Labor for 1925 devotes considerable space to a discussion of unemployment, the activities of the employment exchanges, and the working of the unemployment insurance plan during the year. Figures are given showing that at the end of December, 1925, the number of live registrations at the employment exchanges was 1,102,400. Since January 1, 1922, the number registered has never fallen below 1,000,000 and has varied from a maximum of 1,936,081 in that month to a minimum of 1,009,444 in June, 1924. Attention is called to the fact that the number registered may mean very different things according to the place and the trades represented. A skilled worker may be placed within a few hours of his registration, and from this the period of unemployment represented by a given registration may range through the seasonal depression of some industries to the prolonged spells of idleness which since the war have prevailed in some trades and places. Thus a registry of 5,000 workers at a London exchange and at an exchange in one of the coal-mining towns have very different meanings. The London registry probably covers a variety of different trades and industries; its personnel changes rapidly, as one trade or

² The Headgear Worker, Long Island City, New York, Aug. 20, 1926, p. 3.

another shows greater activity. In the coal valley the registration is likely to be made up almost wholly of coal workers, and a registry of 5,000 may mean an almost complete cessation of the main industry of the locality, with resulting economic dislocation.

The total number of registrations in Great Britain in 1925 (including reregistration of the same person) was 12,728,238, as compared with 11,262,887 in 1924, 8,774,644 in 1923, and 8,819,523 in 1922. Of the registrations in 1925, 8,815,666 were men, 2,952,214 women, and 960,358 juveniles (under 18 years of age). For men, the largest number registering, 1,635,730, were in the group engaged in mining and quarrying, followed in order by those in the engineering trades, transport workers, and general laborers, each group registering over 700,000. Among women the largest group, 697,978, came from the cotton manufacturing trade, which was the case also in each of the three preceding years. Next in order of size comes domestic service (in which 349,274 were registered), the woolen trade, and the dress trades.

An examination of the movement of unemployment showed that the average monthly percentage of persons unemployed in Great Britain and Northern Ireland was 11.3 per cent in 1925 as compared with 10.3 per cent in 1924. The increase was due mainly to the severe depression in the coal-mining industry in 1925, which continued until the last three months of the year. In other industries, as a whole, employment improved during the first half of the year, but the rate of improvement was not maintained during the second half.

Work of the Employment Exchanges

INCREASING attention was given through the year to the placing of unemployed persons, and figures are given showing that the number for whom employment was found rose from 697,036 in 1922 to 1,279,292 in 1925. Of these, 717,319 were men, 325,166 women, and 236,807 juveniles. For men the largest number of placements, 175,161, was made in "construction of works," the second among general laborers, and the third in building. Among women, far the largest number of placements, 129,847, was made in domestic service, the second in the dress trades, and the third in the cotton industry.

To some extent the increase in the number of placements is due to improvement in trade conditions, but in part, also, it represents a continuous advance in the methods of the department and a growing appreciation of the part which the exchanges can play in industry when they are properly supported. "Many important industrial undertakings already engage all their manual workers, both skilled and unskilled, through the local employment exchange."

Unemployment Insurance

IN 1925 a brief act was passed which (1) made the grant of extended benefit subject to the minister's discretion, instead of being a matter of right; (2) prolonged the period within which the minister may waive the first statutory condition for benefit; (3) increased the waiting period from three to six days; and (4) made certain changes in the rates of contribution. These changes in the contributions

did not become effective until January 4, 1926, when a reduction took place, amounting to 4d.¹ a week in the case of men, and 2d. in the case of women and juveniles. The present rates, and their division between employer and employee, are as follows:

	Employer's contribution	Employee's contribution	Total
	1 d.	1 d.	1 s. d.
Men	8	7	1 3
Women	7	6	1 1
Boys	4	3½	7½
Girls	3½	3	6½

Contributions to the unemployment fund during the year amounted to £51,139,984,¹ of which £37,601,534 came from workers and employers, £13,257,457 from the Government, and £280,993 from other sources. The amount paid out in benefits was £45,822,529. The average number drawing benefit each week was about 977,600, and the average per capita amount paid out weekly was 18s. 2d. On December 31, 1925, the debt of the unemployment insurance fund was £7,595,000, as against £5,410,000 on December 31, 1924.

Training for the Unemployed

CONSIDERABLE space is devoted to the plan for training unemployed young men, of which an outline was given in the Labor Review for November, 1925. Two distinct lines of training are laid down, one designed to fit men for employment overseas, where all-round agricultural and rural workers are in demand, and one intended to train the man who does not wish to emigrate, and who had never had the chance to obtain a trade or even steady employment in a semiskilled or unskilled trade. The object of this training is "to teach the men the use of tools, to accustom them to ordinary workshop practice and discipline, and to improve their general employability." Four training centers have been established, of which the first, with accommodations for 400 men, was opened in October, 1925, and the others at dates ranging up to February, 1926.

It is, of course, still too early to say how far this experimental scheme of training will achieve its objects, but the results obtained by the end of the year were encouraging. By December 31, 1925, over 550 men had already entered training at the Birmingham center, more than 150 who started the course on October 20, having already left in order to take up employment. The improvement in the morale and the general bearing of the men undergoing training has been most marked. They have taken most readily, indeed, enthusiastically to their work, and the regular hours and discipline, with the new hope of employment which the training opens up, have changed their outlook on life. There was no difficulty in obtaining an adequate supply of men likely to respond to the facilities offered to them and to give value for the money expended upon them.

¹ At par pound = \$4.8665, shilling = 24.3 cents, penny = 2.03 cents; exchange rate was about at par.

Unemployment Insurance in Queensland¹

THE report upon the operations of the unemployed workers' insurance act of 1922, covering the year ending June 30, 1926, shows that on July 1, 1925, the balance to the credit of the fund was £168,963,² and that at the end of the fiscal year it was £177,638. Receipts and disbursements for the year were as follows:

	Receipts	Disbursements
1924-25-----	£249, 107	£204, 539
1925-26-----	256, 977	248, 301
Increase in 1925-26 over 1924-25-----	7, 870	43, 762

The disbursements for the year included £223,228 for unemployed benefits and £25,073 for administrative and general expenditures. The increased receipts for the year are explained as due to the increase in population and to the numbers of young workers who, during the year, attained the age of 18 years and became contributors to the fund. The increased expenditures are largely due to a severe drought experienced in the north and west, and to the closing in the latter part of 1925 of the works of a large mining company at Mount Morgan, which threw a number of men out of work. Approximately 1,700 were thus thrown upon the labor market at a time when, owing to previous slack work, they were not in a position to meet the financial strain which ensued upon total unemployment.

A conservative estimate of the cost to the unemployment insurance fund of the closing down of these works is £25,000. The effect is still being felt by the fund, as many of the workers formerly in permanent employment have had to join the large body of seasonal workers who from year to year become a charge on the fund during each slack season.

Under the act a worker who loses his job through his own fault may be refused unemployment benefits for a period not exceeding two months. This rule may be applied also, in the discretion of the administering body, to workers who leave their employment voluntarily, "unless it can be shown that the worker was forced to leave his employment not solely through his own fault." Under this rule, payment of benefits was deferred for periods varying from one week to two months in the cases of 503 males and 165 females.

Benefit may also be withheld for 30 days if after registering as unemployed the applicant refuses work offered him, provided it is of a kind which he could reasonably be expected to take, having in view the class of work for which he is registered. In the cases of 97 males and 47 females benefit was withheld under this clause.

Prosecutions, all successful, were undertaken against 112 employers for evasions of their obligations under the act, and against 19 workers for attempting to draw benefits from the fund when not entitled to them.

The working of the fund brings out clearly the seasonal nature of some of Queensland's leading industries. Classed according to the industries followed, the workers fall into 44 groups, and of these 8 groups drew 68 per cent of the total benefits paid. These groups,

¹ Queensland. Department of Labor. Third Annual Report on operations under the unemployed workers' insurance act of 1922. Brisbane, 1926.

² Pound at par-\$4.8065; exchange value was about par.

the percentage of the total benefit paid to each, and the average amount drawn per individual worker, are as follows:

	Per cent of total benefits paid	Average amount per worker
Sugar industry-----	14.9	£4.6
Meat export industry-----	12.4	9.3
Metalliferous mining-----	10.0	8.2
Pastoral industries-----	8.5	4.8
Waterside work-----	6.2	4.6
Local authorities and main roads commis- sion-----	5.5	5.4
Railways, construction and maintenance-----	5.3	4.8
Building industry-----	5.1	4.9
Total-----	67.9	—

TREND OF EMPLOYMENT

Employment in Selected Manufacturing Industries in November, 1926

EMPLOYMENT in manufacturing industries was reduced 1.2 per cent in November as compared with October and pay-roll totals were reduced 3.2 per cent, according to returns made to the Bureau of Labor Statistics by 10,296 establishments in 54 industries. These establishments in November had 3,026,330 employees whose combined earnings in one week were \$80,241,864.

Usually November is a month when seasonal reductions in some industries are offset by increased activities in others, leaving the net change small, whether it be an increase or a decrease. In 1925 November showed a slight improvement in employment over October with no change in employees' earnings, while in 1924 and 1923 there were small decreases both in employment and employees' earnings. The rather large falling off in employees' earnings this year was due, in part at least, to a more general observance of Armistice Day.

The bureau's weighted index of employment for November is 91.4 as compared with 92.5 for both October, 1926, and November, 1925; the weighted index of pay-roll totals for November is 95.4 as compared with 98.6 for October, 1926, and 96.2 for November, 1925.

Comparison of Employment and Pay-Roll Totals in October and November, 1926

TWENTY-TWO of the 54 separate industries gained employees in November, the outstanding increase being 6.7 per cent in steel shipbuilding. Employees in the rubber boot and shoe industry increased 3.1 per cent, in carpets 2.4 per cent, in book and job printing 2 per cent, in woolen goods 1.7 per cent, in furniture 1.4 per cent, and in cotton goods 1 per cent. The most pronounced decreases in employment were largely seasonal, such as 20.7 per cent in the carriage and wagon industry, 9.5 per cent in ice cream, 6.2 per cent in women's clothing, 5 per cent in confectionery, 4 per cent in brick, and 2.9 per cent in men's clothing. The automobile and automobile tire industries, which neither gain nor lose employees habitually in November and which do not customarily fluctuate in unison, each reported a loss of over 8 per cent.

Employees' earnings in November were increased in only 14 industries, carpets showing a gain of 7.5 per cent, followed by rubber boots with a gain of 2.9 per cent. Increases of from 1 to 1.8 per cent each are shown in slaughtering and meat packing, furniture, printing, glass, electric-car building and repairing, shirts, and cotton goods. In addition to the eight industries showing the largest reductions in employment, the following industries also showed considerable, though mostly smaller, decreases in pay-roll totals: Flour, sugar, silk goods, woolen goods, iron and steel, structural-iron work, foundry and machine-shop products, steam fittings, boots and shoes, fertilizers, cement, pottery, and stamped and enameled ware.

The paper group and the group of miscellaneous industries, of the 12 groups of industries, were the only ones which showed increased employment in November, the percentage gain being 1.1 in each case. The most pronounced decrease was 4.4 per cent in the vehicle group, and the smallest decrease was 0.3 per cent in the textile group. The textile group would have shown an increase but for the abnormal seasonal decline in the clothing industries.

The South Atlantic States showed an increase in employees of less than one-tenth of 1 per cent in November, while each of the remaining eight geographical divisions showed decreased employment, the outstanding decrease, 3.7 per cent, being in the East North Central division.

For convenient reference the latest figures available relating to all employees, excluding executives and officials, on Class I railroads, drawn from Interstate Commerce Commission reports, are given at the foot of Table 1 and Table 3.

TABLE 1.—COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT AND PAY-ROLL TOTALS IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS DURING ONE WEEK EACH IN OCTOBER AND NOVEMBER, 1926

Industry	Establishments	Number on pay roll		Per cent of change	Amount of pay roll		Per cent of change
		October, 1926	November, 1926		October, 1926	November, 1926	
Food and kindred products							
Slaughtering and meat packing	1,476	220,693	216,870	(1)	\$5,613,002	\$5,494,642	(1)
Candy	186	86,164	86,570	+0.5	2,220,417	2,256,347	+1.6
Confectionery	257	38,814	36,870	-5.0	716,249	673,531	-6.0
Ice cream	195	8,842	8,003	-9.5	298,355	260,580	-12.7
Flour	332	16,513	16,311	-1.2	445,601	426,561	-4.3
Baking	491	60,027	58,708	-2.2	1,611,011	1,575,738	-2.2
Sugar refining, cane	15	10,333	10,408	+0.7	321,369	301,885	-6.1
Textiles and their products	1,819	584,878	587,214	(1)	11,585,291	11,416,607	(1)
Cotton goods	481	227,193	229,386	+1.0	3,600,777	3,652,361	+1.4
Hosiery and knit goods	245	78,659	79,260	+0.8	1,513,507	1,514,453	+0.1
Silk goods	197	57,923	57,873	-0.1	1,284,954	1,232,645	-4.1
Woolen and worsted goods	194	64,810	65,941	+1.7	1,510,690	1,477,192	-2.2
Carpets and rugs	31	23,729	24,294	+2.4	628,926	675,876	+7.5
Dyeing and finishing textiles	90	29,567	29,915	+1.2	731,305	727,301	-0.5
Clothing, men's	265	57,007	55,349	-2.9	1,346,232	1,240,256	-7.9
Shirts and collars	83	20,384	20,528	+0.7	334,925	338,194	+1.0
Clothing, women's	166	15,958	14,961	-6.2	413,196	342,753	-17.0
Millinery and lace goods	67	9,648	9,707	+0.6	220,770	215,576	-2.4
Iron and steel and their products	1,827	703,569	691,154	(1)	21,349,126	20,595,189	(1)
Iron and steel	213	288,207	285,173	-1.1	9,111,623	8,797,679	-3.4
Cast-iron pipe	47	14,947	14,433	-3.4	361,226	354,163	-2.0
Structural-iron work	152	24,654	23,928	-2.9	719,070	685,024	-4.7
Foundry and machine-shop products	989	250,148	243,560	-2.6	7,516,932	7,225,212	-3.9
Hardware	68	34,988	34,811	-0.5	901,071	890,871	-1.1
Machine tools	160	31,969	32,117	+0.5	904,607	1,002,444	+0.8
Steam fittings and steam and hot-water heating apparatus	111	41,601	40,112	-3.6	1,230,138	1,141,024	-7.9
Stoves	87	17,055	17,020	-0.2	505,459	498,772	-1.3
Lumber and its products	1,066	220,425	218,854	(1)	4,997,601	4,922,587	(1)
Lumber, sawmills	456	128,350	126,345	-1.6	2,695,261	2,618,509	-2.8
Lumber, millwork	240	30,977	30,529	-1.4	779,323	761,345	-2.3
Furniture	370	61,098	61,980	+1.4	1,523,017	1,542,733	+1.3
Leather and its products	354	126,151	124,158	(1)	2,993,103	2,790,627	(1)
Leather	138	29,464	29,466	+0.1	761,511	730,911	-2.8
Boots and shoes	216	96,687	94,692	-2.1	2,231,592	2,050,716	-8.1

¹ The per cent of change has not been computed for the reason that the figures in the preceding columns are unweighted and refer only to the establishments reporting; for the weighted per cent of change wherein proper allowance is made for the relative importance of the several industries, so that the figures may represent all establishments of the country in the industries here represented, see Table 2.

² Less than one-tenth of 1 per cent.

TABLE 1.—COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT AND PAY-ROLL TOTALS IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS DURING ONE WEEK EACH IN OCTOBER AND NOVEMBER, 1926—Continued

Industry	Establishments	Number on pay roll		Per cent of change	Amount of pay roll		Per cent of change
		October, 1926	November, 1926		October, 1926	November, 1926	
Paper and printing	904	175,368	177,107	(1)	\$5,685,310	\$5,724,156	(1)
Paper and pulp	214	57,508	57,298	-0.4	1,560,997	1,547,258	-0.9
Paper boxes	183	21,163	21,483	+1.5	483,568	482,167	-0.3
Printing, book and job	296	46,876	47,795	+2.0	1,618,954	1,647,208	+1.7
Printing, newspaper	211	49,821	50,531	+1.4	2,021,791	2,047,523	+1.3
Chemicals and allied products	283	89,756	88,874	(1)	2,583,820	2,561,210	(1)
Chemicals	119	30,996	30,952	-0.1	849,503	846,682	-0.3
Fertilizers	109	9,325	8,958	-3.9	178,717	171,821	-3.9
Petroleum refining	55	49,435	48,964	-1.0	1,555,600	1,542,707	-0.8
Stone, clay, and glass products	692	117,002	115,429	(1)	3,155,031	3,079,917	(1)
Cement	97	27,439	26,743	-2.5	826,982	792,932	-4.1
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	418	34,557	33,160	-4.0	898,214	858,594	-4.4
Pottery	59	13,500	13,663	+1.2	366,306	353,355	-3.5
Glass	118	41,596	41,863	+0.6	1,063,529	1,075,036	+1.1
Metal products, other than iron and steel	215	53,286	52,814	(1)	1,441,832	1,401,149	(1)
Stamped and enameled ware	68	20,270	19,723	-2.7	507,507	475,090	-6.4
Brass, bronze, and copper products	147	33,016	33,091	+0.2	934,325	926,059	-0.9
Tobacco products	193	45,309	45,018	(1)	834,749	821,892	(1)
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	29	8,749	8,611	-1.6	139,708	125,470	-10.2
Cigars and cigarettes	164	36,560	36,407	-0.4	695,041	696,422	+0.2
Vehicles for land transportation	1,058	472,713	446,247	(1)	15,311,143	13,914,929	(1)
Automobiles	192	300,320	276,027	-8.1	10,127,876	8,790,327	-13.2
Carriages and wagons	71	2,308	1,830	-20.7	51,771	43,010	-16.9
Car building and repairing, electric-railroad	308	22,669	22,570	-0.4	689,158	701,670	+1.8
Car building and repairing, steam-railroad	487	147,416	145,820	-1.1	4,442,338	4,379,922	-1.4
Miscellaneous industries	409	266,400	262,591	(1)	7,790,233	7,518,959	(1)
Agricultural implements	93	26,171	26,359	+0.7	731,105	727,495	-0.5
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	163	127,728	125,940	-1.4	3,709,454	3,616,917	-2.5
Pianos and organs	39	8,537	8,587	+0.6	273,408	275,634	+0.8
Rubber boots and shoes	10	17,128	17,657	+3.1	414,782	426,749	+2.9
Automobile tires	62	57,812	53,077	-8.2	1,774,339	1,585,352	-10.7
Shipbuilding, steel	42	29,024	30,971	+6.7	887,145	886,812	(1)
All industries	10,296	3,075,640	3,026,330	(1)	83,340,241	80,241,864	(1)

Recapitulation by Geographic Divisions

GEOGRAPHIC DIVISION							
New England	1,324	429,922	429,689	-0.1	\$10,492,346	\$10,351,370	-1.3
Middle Atlantic	2,478	873,772	867,164	-0.8	25,109,884	24,539,268	-2.3
East North Central	2,749	992,290	955,931	-3.7	30,359,224	28,321,669	-6.7
West North Central	997	160,988	157,585	-2.1	4,120,295	3,956,269	-4.0
South Atlantic	1,093	281,101	281,149	+ (1)	5,377,758	5,337,198	-0.8
East South Central	470	111,209	110,831	-0.3	2,185,538	2,141,966	-2.0
West South Central	446	90,994	90,276	-0.8	1,939,814	1,927,210	-0.6
Mountain	166	28,504	28,384	-0.4	771,637	768,268	-0.4
Pacific	573	106,860	105,321	-1.4	2,983,745	2,898,646	-2.9
All divisions	10,296	3,075,640	3,026,330	(1)	83,340,241	80,241,864	(1)

Employment on Class I Railroads

Sept. 15, 1926	1,838,304				
Oct. 15, 1926	1,849,209	+0.6			

* \$246,732,747

* 255,524,115

+3.6

¹ The per cent of change has not been computed for the reason that the figures in the preceding columns are unweighted and refer only to the establishments reporting; for the weighted per cent of change wherein proper allowance is made for the relative importance of the several industries, so that the figures may represent all establishments of the country in the industries here represented, see Table 2.

² Less than one-tenth of 1 per cent.

³ Amount of pay roll for 1 month.

TABLE 2.—PER CENT OF CHANGE, OCTOBER TO NOVEMBER, 1926, IN 12 GROUPS OF INDUSTRIES AND TOTAL OF ALL INDUSTRIES

[Computed from the index numbers of each group, which are obtained by weighting the index numbers of the several industries of the group by the number of employees, or wages paid, in the industries]

Group	Per cent of change, October to November, 1926		Group	Per cent of change, October to November, 1926	
	Number on pay roll	Amount of pay roll		Number on pay roll	Amount of pay roll
Food and kindred products	-2.0	-2.1	Metal products, other than iron and steel	-0.6	-2.3
Textiles and their products	-0.3	-3.7	Tobacco products	-0.6	-1.1
Iron and steel and their products	-1.8	-3.4	Vehicles for land transportation	-4.4	-6.7
Lumber and its products	-1.4	-2.0	Miscellaneous industries	+1.1	-2.3
Leather and its products	-1.6	-6.6	All industries	-1.2	-3.2
Paper and printing	+1.1	+0.7			
Chemicals and allied products	-1.0	-1.0			
Stone, clay, and glass products	-1.5	-2.1			

Comparison of Employment and Pay-Roll Totals in November, 1926, and November, 1925

EMPLOYMENT in November, 1926, was 1.2 per cent below that of November, 1925, and pay-roll totals were 0.8 per cent less.

Nineteen industries gained employees while 35 industries lost employees. The outstanding gain was 21.8 per cent in steel shipbuilding, although noticeable improvement was shown also in the structural-iron work, machine tool, and printing industries, with smaller gains in other iron and steel industries and in pottery, glass, and electrical goods.

The automobile industry showed a decrease of over 19 per cent in this comparison over a 12-month interval, as compared with an increase of 42 per cent in November, 1925, over November, 1924. All of the textile industries also show decreased employment.

Among the nine groups of industries, the iron and steel, leather, paper, chemical, stone, clay, and glass, and miscellaneous groups all showed a decided improvement over November, 1925.

Again employment conditions were decidedly better, as compared with the corresponding month of 1925, in the South Atlantic States, and the West South Central, Mountain, and Pacific divisions also showed an advance over November of the previous year. But decreased employment was shown in the eastern, northern, and certain southern divisions; the East Central divisions, both north and south, showed very noticeable declines.

TABLE 3.—COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT AND PAY-ROLL TOTALS—NOVEMBER, 1925, AND NOVEMBER, 1926

[The per cents of change for each of the 12 groups of industries, and for the total of all industries, are weighted in the same manner as are the per cents of change in Table 2]

Industry	Per cent of change November, 1925, compared with November, 1926		Industry	Per cent of change November, 1925, compared with November, 1926	
	Number on pay roll	Amount of pay roll		Number on pay roll	Amount of pay roll
Food and kindred products			Paper and printing—Contd.		
Slaughtering and meat packing	-1.4	-1.3	Printing, book and job	+4.7	+5.1
Confectionery	-3.6	-3.8	Printing, newspaper	+5.6	+6.9
Ice cream	-0.2	+1.7			
Flour	-4.5	-5.6	Chemicals and allied products	+1.6	+3.1
Baking	-0.3	-1.4	Chemicals	+1.0	+4.9
Sugar-refining, cane	+0.4	+1.8	Fertilizers	-0.3	+5.6
	-3.3	-8.6	Petroleum refining	+3.1	+0.5
Textiles and their products	-4.1	-5.4			
Cotton goods	-0.9	+0.9	Stone, clay, and glass products	+1.2	+0.1
Hosiery and knit goods	-3.3	-0.3	Cement	-4.0	-7.0
Silk goods	-7.0	-7.2	Brick, tile, and terra cotta	-0.1	+0.4
Woolen and worsted goods	-2.2	-0.5	Pottery	+3.1	+0.7
Carpets and rugs	-5.2	+1.0	Glass	+3.3	+2.2
Dyeing and finishing textiles	-2.4	-3.0			
Clothing, men's	-5.0	-8.1	Metal products, other than iron and steel	-4.8	-6.5
Shirts and collars	-7.8	-7.7	Stamped and enameled ware	-11.3	-16.3
Clothing, women's	-8.0	-19.7	Brass, bronze, and copper products	-1.8	-2.7
Millinery and lace goods	-13.2	-14.9			
Iron and steel and their products	+2.0	+3.3	Tobacco products	-8.2	-8.6
Iron and steel	+1.8	+4.4	Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	+3.2	-1.0
Cast-iron pipe	+1.7	+1.0	Cigars and cigarettes	-9.7	-9.4
Structural-iron work	+7.8	+7.9			
Foundry and machine-shop products	+3.1	+3.2	Vehicles for land transportation	-9.2	-13.0
Hardware	-6.8	-3.1	Automobiles	-19.1	-26.6
Machine tools	+6.9	+8.1	Carriages and wagons	-26.6	-20.8
Steam fittings and steam and hot-water heating apparatus	-9.8	-8.7	Car building and repairing, electric-railroad	-2.1	-5.1
Stoves	-1.2	-2.7	Car building and repairing, steam-railroad	+0.5	+0.7
Lumber and its products	-3.2	-0.9			
Lumber, sawmills	-3.2	-1.0	Miscellaneous industries	+8.4	+0.6
Lumber, millwork	-7.3	-6.0	Agricultural implements	-5.3	-8.5
Furniture	-0.7	+3.2	Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	+3.4	+1.5
Leather and its products	+0.1	+2.3	Pianos and organs	-1.5	-2.8
Leather	+0.9	-0.5	Rubber boots and shoes	+1.9	-0.9
Boots and shoes	-0.1	+3.7	Automobile tires	-3.3	-0.4
Paper and printing	+3.5	+4.2	Shipbuilding, steel	+21.8	+25.2
Paper and pulp	+1.4	+0.8			
Paper boxes	-0.3	+1.6	All industries	-1.2	-0.8

Recapitulation by Geographic Divisions

GEOGRAPHIC DIVISION			GEOGRAPHIC DIVISION—con.		
New England	-1.8	-1.4	West South Central	+0.8	+3.5
Middle Atlantic	-1.2	+0.5	Mountain	+2.0	+3.1
East North Central	-6.1	-9.9	Pacific	+0.2	-0.1
West North Central	-1.0	-1.2			
South Atlantic	+2.3	+3.1	All divisions	-1.2	-0.8
East South Central	-7.2	-7.5			

Employment on Class I Railroads

Month and year	Number on pay roll	Per cent of change	Amount of pay roll	Per cent of change
Oct. 15, 1925	1,800,453		\$250,508,828	
Oct. 15, 1926	1,849,209	+2.7	¹ 255,524,115	+2.0

¹ Amount of pay roll for 1 month.

Per Capita Earnings

THIRTEEN of the 54 industries show increased per capita earnings in November as compared with October, and 1 shows no change.

The carpet industry shows an increase of 5 per cent, the augmented forces in this industry averaging full-time employment, but in the case of the industry reporting the next largest increase—carriages and wagons with a gain of 4.8 per cent—one-fifth of the employees had been dropped while those remaining were working more nearly full time than in October. Employees in the women's clothing industry were averaging 11.5 per cent less pay in November than in October, and those in the men's clothing industry more than 5 per cent less. The losses in per capita earnings in chewing tobacco, sugar, shipbuilding, boots and shoes, and automobiles ranged between those in the two clothing industries.

Changes in per capita earnings between November, 1926, and November, 1925, were equally divided between gains and losses and, generally speaking, the industries having the most pronounced changes in the monthly comparison also showed the large changes in the yearly comparison.

TABLE 4.—COMPARISON OF PER CAPITA EARNINGS, NOVEMBER, 1926, WITH OCTOBER, 1926, AND NOVEMBER, 1925

Industry	Per cent of change November, 1926, compared with—		Industry	Per cent of change November, 1926, compared with—	
	October, 1926	November, 1925		October, 1926	November, 1925
Carpets and rugs	+5.0	+5.3	Stoves	-1.1	-1.4
Carriages and wagons	+4.8	+8.1	Agricultural implements	-1.2	-3.3
Car building and repairing, electric-railroad	+2.3	-3.0	Foundry and machine-shop products	-1.3	+0.2
Cast-iron pipe	+1.5	-2.7	Lumber, sawmills	-1.3	+2.2
Slaughtering and meat packing	+1.1	+0.1	Cement	-1.6	-3.1
Cigars and cigarettes	+0.6	-0.1	Dyeing and finishing textiles	-1.7	-0.8
Cotton goods	+0.4	+1.4	Paper boxes	-1.8	+1.7
Glass	+0.4	-1.2	Structural ironwork	-1.9	(1)
Machine tools	+0.3	+1.3	Iron and steel	-2.4	+2.6
Pianos and organs	+0.2	-1.5	Automobile tires	-2.7	+3.1
Shirts and collars	+0.2	-0.5	Leather	-2.9	-1.5
Fertilizers	+0.1	+5.9	Millinery and lace goods	-2.9	-1.9
Petroleum refining	+0.1	-2.5	Flour	-3.1	-1.1
Baking	(1)	+1.5	Ice cream	-3.5	-1.1
Printing, newspaper	-0.1	+1.5	Stamped and enameled ware	-3.8	-5.5
Chemicals	-0.2	+3.7	Woolen and worsted goods	-3.9	+1.6
Furniture	-0.2	+1.6	Silk goods	-4.0	-0.2
Printing, book and job	-0.2	+0.7	Steam fittings and steam and hot-water heating apparatus	-4.5	+1.4
Rubber boots and shoes	-0.2	-2.8	Pottery	-4.7	-2.2
Car building and repairing, steam-railroad	-0.3	+0.2	Clothing, men's	-5.1	-3.0
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	-0.4	+0.5	Automobiles	-5.6	-9.5
Paper and pulp	-0.5	-0.9	Boots and shoes	-6.2	+3.7
Hardware	-0.6	+3.7	Shipbuilding, steel	-6.4	+2.6
Hosiery and knit goods	-0.7	+3.3	Sugar refining, cane	-6.7	-5.4
Lumber, millwork	-0.9	+1.1	Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	-8.8	-4.3
Confectionery	-1.0	+1.9	Clothing, women's	-11.5	-12.8
Brass, bronze, and copper products	-1.1	-0.7			
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	-1.1	-1.7			

¹ No change.

Wage Changes

NINETY-THREE establishments in 19 industries reported wage-rate increases for the month ending November 15. These increases, averaging 5 per cent, affected 17,110 employees, or 52 per cent of the total employees in the establishments concerned. Forty-one of these increases were in the steam-railroad carbuilding and repairing industry and 12 in the electric-railroad car industry, but no special significance can be attached to any of the other wage increases.

Wage-rate decreases were reported by 10 establishments in 9 industries. These decreases averaged 12.1 per cent and affected 533 employees, or 60 per cent of the total employees in the establishments concerned.

TABLE 5.—WAGE ADJUSTMENT OCCURRING BETWEEN OCTOBER 15 AND NOVEMBER 15, 1926

Industry	Establishments		Per cent of increase or decrease in wage rates		Employees affected		
	Total number reporting	Number reporting increase or decrease in wage rates	Range	Average	Total number	Per cent of employees—	
						In establishments reporting increase or decrease in wage rates	In all establishments reporting
Increases							
Slaughtering and meat packing	186	1	6	6.0	175	10	(1)
Baking	491	1	6	6.0	45	20	(1)
Cotton goods	481	1	10	10.0	110	100	(1)
Silk goods	197	4	10	10.0	113	46	(1)
Woolen and worsted goods	194	2	5 -10	5.3	79	32	(1)
Foundry and machine-shop products	989	10	4 -25	8.9	297	9	(1)
Machine tools	160	2	8 -9	8.7	16	8	(1)
Lumber, millwork	240	4	5 -12.5	7.1	69	12	(1)
Furniture	370	4	5 -10	7.3	57	11	(1)
Leather	138	1	3	3.0	40	7	(1)
Printing, book and job	296	2	2.8 -3.7	3.3	66	13	(1)
Printing, newspaper	211	3	6.3 -7.1	6.4	235	18	(1)
Chemicals	119	1	10	10.0	88	5	(1)
Stamped and enameled ware	68	1	3	3.0	23	31	(1)
Automobiles	192	1	5	5.0	23	8	(1)
Car building and repairing, electric-railroad	308	12	4 -4.3	4.2	250	57	1
Car building and repairing, steam-railroad	487	41	2.6 -5.5	4.8	15,271	84	10
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	163	1	1	1.0	75	6	(1)
Pianos and organs	39	1	7.5	7.5	65	5	1
Decreases							
Flour	332	2	8 -10	9.5	26	76	(1)
Hosiery and knit goods	245	1	7	7.0	45	69	(1)
Clothing, men's	265	1	15	15.0	250	71	(1)
Foundry and machine-shop products	989	1	12	12.0	40	78	(1)
Boots and shoes	216	1	9	9.0	50	54	(1)
Printing, book and job	296	1	16.7	16.7	48	72	(1)
Carriages and wagons	71	1	40	10.0	6	21	(1)
Agricultural implements	93	1	1	1.0	54	96	(1)
Automobile tires	62	1	20	20.0	14	10	(1)

¹ Less than one-half of 1 per cent.

Indexes of Employment and Pay-Roll Totals in Manufacturing Industries

INDEX numbers for November, 1926, and for October, 1926, and November, 1925, showing relatively the variation in number of persons employed and in pay-roll totals in each of the 54 industries surveyed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, together with general indexes for the combined 12 groups of industries, appear in Table 6, following.

The general index of employment in November, 1926, is 91.4, this number being 1.2 per cent lower than both the index for October, 1926, and that for November, 1925. The general index of pay-roll totals for November, 1926, is 95.4, this number being 3.2 per cent lower than the index for October, 1926, and 0.8 per cent lower than the index for November, 1925.

TABLE 6.—INDEXES OF EMPLOYMENT AND PAY-ROLL TOTALS IN MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES—NOVEMBER, 1925, AND OCTOBER AND NOVEMBER, 1926

[Monthly average, 1923=100]

Industry	Employment			Pay-roll totals		
	November, 1925	October, 1926	November, 1926	November, 1925	October, 1926	November, 1926
General index	92.5	92.5	91.4	96.2	98.6	95.4
Food and kindred products	93.7	94.3	92.4	97.1	97.9	95.8
Slaughtering and meat packing	86.1	82.6	83.0	90.6	85.9	87.2
Confectionery	98.0	103.0	97.8	103.6	112.2	105.4
Ice cream	88.5	93.4	84.5	95.4	103.2	90.1
Flour	92.2	93.0	91.9	95.5	98.4	94.2
Baking	101.5	104.2	101.9	104.4	108.7	106.3
Sugar refining, cane	91.9	88.3	88.9	96.2	93.7	87.9
Textiles and their products	89.8	86.4	86.1	89.6	88.1	84.8
Cotton goods	85.0	83.4	84.2	82.2	81.8	82.9
Hosiery and knit goods	102.2	98.0	98.8	114.2	113.7	113.9
Silk goods	107.7	100.3	100.2	114.4	110.8	106.2
Woolen and worsted goods	88.0	84.6	86.1	85.7	87.2	85.3
Carpets and rugs	94.5	87.5	89.6	92.4	86.8	93.3
Dyeing and finishing textiles	101.2	97.6	98.8	105.5	102.8	102.3
Clothing, men's	86.0	84.1	81.7	77.0	76.9	70.8
Shirts and collars	90.3	82.8	83.3	93.2	85.1	86.0
Clothing, women's	80.4	78.9	74.0	86.6	83.8	69.5
Millinery and lace goods	77.2	66.6	67.0	79.6	69.3	67.7
Iron and steel and their products	88.7	92.2	90.5	92.9	99.4	96.8
Iron and steel	95.3	98.1	97.0	98.7	106.6	108.0
Cast-iron pipe	101.4	106.7	103.1	106.4	107.4	105.3
Structural-iron work	92.9	103.1	100.1	99.3	112.4	107.1
Foundry and machine-shop products	81.6	86.4	84.1	84.3	90.5	87.0
Hardware	92.1	86.2	85.8	100.2	98.2	97.1
Machine tools	97.5	103.7	104.2	108.4	116.3	117.2
Steam fittings and steam and hot-water heating apparatus	102.4	95.8	92.4	104.0	103.1	95.0
Stoves	92.7	91.8	91.6	100.1	98.7	97.4
Lumber and its products	93.2	91.5	90.2	100.9	102.0	100.8
Lumber, sawmills	88.2	86.8	85.4	95.7	97.5	94.7
Lumber, millwork	103.2	97.1	95.7	109.7	105.5	103.1
Furniture	104.4	104.3	103.7	113.0	115.1	116.6
Leather and its products	91.9	93.5	92.0	85.4	93.6	82.4
Leather	91.4	92.1	92.2	93.8	96.0	93.3
Boots and shoes	92.1	94.0	92.0	82.1	92.6	85.1
Paper and printing	103.0	105.4	106.6	110.4	114.3	115.0
Paper and pulp	94.5	96.2	95.8	102.7	104.5	103.5
Paper boxes	107.5	105.6	107.2	116.1	118.2	117.9
Printing, book and job	102.3	105.0	107.1	110.9	114.7	116.6
Printing, newspaper	109.8	114.3	115.9	115.4	121.8	123.4
Chemicals and allied products	97.6	100.2	99.2	100.5	104.6	103.8
Chemicals	95.8	96.9	96.8	102.6	107.9	107.6
Fertilizers	101.1	104.9	100.8	99.6	109.5	105.2
Petroleum refining	98.6	102.7	101.7	98.4	99.7	98.9

TABLE 6.—INDEXES OF EMPLOYMENT AND PAY-ROLL TOTALS IN MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES—NOVEMBER, 1925, AND OCTOBER AND NOVEMBER, 1926—Contd.

Industry	Employment			Pay-roll totals		
	November, 1925	October, 1926	November, 1926	November, 1925	October, 1926	November, 1926
Stone, clay, and glass products	99.7	102.4	100.9	108.8	111.2	108.9
Cement	96.8	95.3	92.9	106.1	102.9	98.7
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	99.1	103.1	99.0	104.3	109.5	104.7
Pottery	105.4	107.4	108.7	116.8	121.9	117.6
Glass	99.3	102.1	102.6	111.0	112.2	113.4
Metal products, other than iron and steel	100.2	96.0	95.4	102.3	98.0	95.7
Stamped and enameled ware	103.0	93.9	91.4	103.4	92.4	86.5
Brass, bronze, and copper products	99.0	97.0	97.2	101.9	100.0	99.1
Tobacco products	94.6	87.3	86.8	100.6	92.9	91.9
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	90.3	94.7	93.2	92.1	101.6	91.2
Cigars and cigarettes	95.2	86.3	86.0	101.6	91.9	92.0
Vehicles for land transportation	93.7	89.0	85.1	101.0	94.2	87.9
Automobiles	118.1	103.9	95.5	131.4	111.0	96.4
Carriages and wagons	99.7	92.3	73.2	98.3	93.7	77.9
Car building and repairing, electric railroad	89.8	88.2	87.9	95.4	88.9	90.5
Car building and repairing, steam railroad	78.2	79.4	78.6	81.9	83.7	82.5
Miscellaneous industries	91.0	97.5	98.6	93.0	105.3	102.9
Agricultural implements	99.1	93.1	93.8	112.4	103.4	102.9
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	98.0	102.7	101.3	104.0	108.3	105.6
Pianos and organs	99.2	97.1	97.7	119.9	115.7	116.6
Rubber boots and shoes	85.2	84.2	86.8	95.9	92.3	95.0
Automobile tires	107.0	112.7	103.5	104.7	116.8	104.3
Shipbuilding, steel	79.8	91.1	97.2	80.7	101.0	101.0

The following table shows the general index of employment in manufacturing industries and the general index of pay-roll totals from January, 1923, to November, 1926:

TABLE 7.—GENERAL INDEX OF EMPLOYMENT AND PAY-ROLL TOTALS IN MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES, JANUARY, 1923, TO NOVEMBER, 1926

[Monthly average, 1923=100]

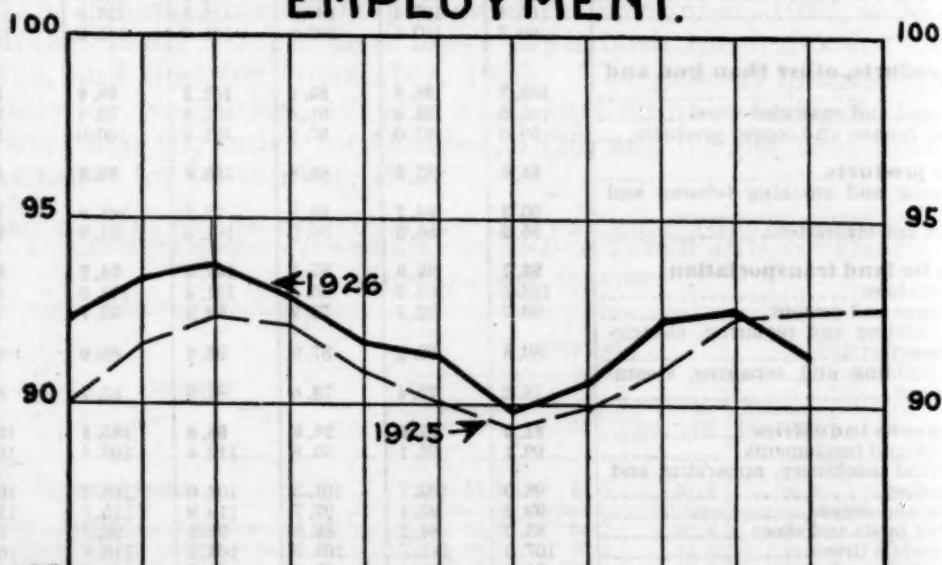
Month	Employment				Pay-roll totals			
	1923	1924	1925	1926	1923	1924	1925	1926
January	98.0	95.4	90.0	92.3	91.8	94.5	90.0	93.9
February	99.6	96.6	91.6	93.3	95.2	90.4	95.1	97.9
March	101.8	96.4	92.3	93.7	100.3	99.0	96.6	99.1
April	101.8	94.5	92.1	92.8	101.3	96.9	94.2	97.2
May	101.8	90.8	90.9	91.7	104.8	92.4	94.4	95.6
June	101.9	87.9	90.1	91.3	104.7	87.0	91.7	95.5
July	100.4	84.8	89.3	89.8	99.9	80.8	89.6	91.2
August	99.7	85.0	89.9	90.7	99.3	83.5	91.4	94.6
September	99.8	86.7	90.9	92.2	100.0	86.0	90.4	95.1
October	99.3	87.9	92.3	92.5	102.3	88.5	96.2	98.6
November	98.7	87.8	92.5	91.4	101.0	87.6	96.2	95.4
December	96.9	89.4	92.6	—	98.9	91.7	97.3	—
Average	100.0	90.3	91.2	92.0	100.0	90.6	93.6	95.8

¹ Average for 11 months.

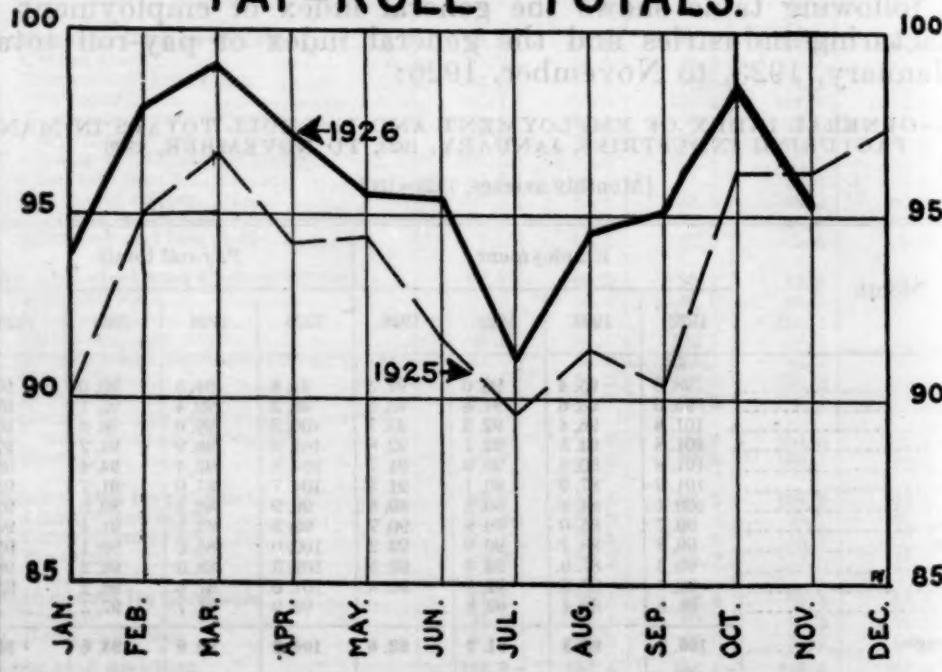
The following graph of index numbers shows the course of employment, and of pay-roll totals, for each month of 1926 as compared with the corresponding month of 1925:

MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES.
MONTHLY INDEXES—1925 & 1926.
 MONTHLY AVERAGE 1923 = 100.

EMPLOYMENT.



PAY-ROLL TOTALS.



Proportion of Time Worked and Force Employed in Manufacturing Industries in November, 1926

REPORTS from 7,881 establishments in November showed 1 per cent idle, 82 per cent operating on a full-time schedule, and 16 per cent on a part-time schedule; 45 per cent had a full normal force of employees and 54 per cent were operating with a reduced force.

The 7,788 establishments in operation were employing an average of 87 per cent of a full normal force of employees, who were working an average of 97 per cent of full time, these percentages being, in each case, about 1 per cent less than those reported in October by 7,608 establishments.

TABLE 8.—ESTABLISHMENTS WORKING FULL AND PART TIME AND EMPLOYING FULL AND PART WORKING FORCE IN NOVEMBER, 1926

Industry	Establishments reporting		Per cent of establishments operating		Average per cent of full time operated in establishments operating	Per cent of establishments operating with		Average per cent of normal full force employed by establishments operating
	Total number	Per cent idle	Full time	Part time		Full normal force	Part normal force	
Food and kindred products	1,172	(1)	86	14	98	51	49	89
Slaughtering and meat packing	150	—	83	17	98	63	37	95
Confectionery	213	—	86	14	98	35	65	87
Ice cream	154	3	89	8	98	5	92	66
Flour	293	(1)	76	24	96	64	36	92
Baking	353	—	94	6	99	64	36	95
Sugar refining, cane	9	—	89	11	98	56	44	93
Textiles and their products	1,311	2	78	20	97	48	50	89
Cotton goods	440	2	81	17	97	66	32	94
Hosiery and knit goods	166	—	82	18	97	47	54	90
Silk goods	149	2	80	18	98	38	60	87
Woolen and worsted goods	157	1	74	25	97	36	62	87
Carpets and rugs	19	—	84	16	100	32	68	83
Dyeing and finishing textiles	78	—	59	41	94	51	49	91
Clothing, men's	133	1	81	18	96	35	65	82
Shirts and collars	40	—	90	10	97	55	45	89
Clothing, women's	90	13	73	13	97	33	53	86
Millinery and lace goods	39	—	74	26	94	23	77	75
Iron and steel and their products	1,480	1	77	22	96	33	67	83
Iron and steel	155	3	81	16	96	28	69	88
Cast-iron pipe	46	2	50	48	84	35	63	90
Structural-iron work	131	—	95	5	100	37	63	83
Foundry and machine-shop products	821	(1)	75	24	96	31	69	80
Hardware	61	—	66	34	95	36	64	87
Machine tools	126	—	95	5	99	36	64	79
Steam fittings and steam and hot-water heating apparatus	72	—	75	25	96	42	58	87
Stoves	68	3	63	34	94	32	65	83
Lumber and its products	882	1	87	12	99	42	56	88
Lumber, sawmills	382	2	89	9	98	39	59	86
Lumber, millwork	189	1	84	15	98	30	69	86
Furniture	311	(1)	87	13	100	54	45	93
Leather and its products	269	1	69	30	93	36	63	89
Leather	108	1	89	10	98	33	66	86
Boots and shoes	161	1	55	43	87	37	61	92
Paper and printing	565	1	91	8	99	68	32	95
Paper and pulp	144	1	87	12	98	58	40	95
Paper boxes	108	1	90	9	98	51	48	94
Printing, book and job	182	—	88	12	99	64	36	93
Printing, newspaper	131	—	100	—	100	97	3	100

¹ Less than one-half of 1 per cent.

TABLE 8.—ESTABLISHMENTS WORKING FULL AND PART TIME AND EMPLOYING FULL AND PART WORKING FORCE IN NOVEMBER, 1926—Continued

Industry	Establishments reporting		Per cent of establishments operating		Average per cent of full time operated in establishments operating	Per cent of establishments operating with—		Average per cent of normal full force employed by establishments operating
	Total number	Per cent idle	Full time	Part time		Full normal force	Part normal force	
Chemicals and allied products	246	—	89	11	99	43	57	78
Chemicals	95	—	98	2	100	63	37	94
Fertilizers	107	—	79	21	97	17	83	59
Petroleum refining	44	—	98	2	100	64	36	92
Stone, clay, and glass products	518	6	83	11	98	33	61	56
Cement	75	1	96	3	100	36	63	90
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	304	8	79	13	97	26	66	84
Pottery	46	—	80	20	96	37	63	89
Glass	93	5	88	6	98	52	43	90
Metal products, other than iron and steel	171	—	76	24	96	35	65	82
Stamped and enameled ware	45	—	76	24	96	24	76	83
Brass, bronze, and copper products	126	—	76	24	97	38	62	82
Tobacco products	103	2	81	17	97	35	63	88
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	19	—	47	53	89	21	79	85
Cigars and cigarettes	84	2	88	10	99	38	60	89
Vehicles for land transportation	851	(1)	86	14	98	56	44	88
Automobiles	148	—	51	49	91	24	76	75
Carriages and wagons	60	5	80	15	98	33	62	77
Car building and repairing, electric-railroad	253	—	95	5	90	72	28	97
Car building and repairing, steam-railroad	390	—	94	6	99	61	39	89
Miscellaneous industries	313	(1)	79	21	97	38	62	84
Agricultural implements	77	1	66	32	95	25	74	82
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	128	—	87	13	99	55	45	93
Pianos and organs	23	—	91	9	98	48	52	91
Rubber boots and shoes	9	—	78	22	98	33	67	99
Automobile tires	45	—	56	44	90	20	80	77
Shipbuilding, steel	31	—	100	—	100	19	81	74
Total	7,881	1	82	16	97	45	54	87

¹ Less than one-half of 1 per cent.

Employment and Earnings of Railroad Employees, October, 1925, and September and October, 1926

THE following table shows the number of employees and the earnings in various occupations among railroad employees in October, 1926, in comparison with employment and earnings in September, 1926, and October, 1925.

The figures are for Class I roads—that is, all roads having operating revenues of \$1,000,000 a year and over.

EMPLOYMENT AND EARNINGS OF RAILROAD EMPLOYEES, OCTOBER, 1925, AND SEPTEMBER AND OCTOBER, 1926

[From monthly reports of Interstate Commerce Commission. As data for only the more important occupations are shown separately the group totals are not the sum of the items under the respective groups; the grand totals will be found on pp. 165 and 167]

Occupation	Number of employees at middle of month			Total earnings		
	October, 1925	Septem- ber, 1926	October, 1926	October, 1925	Septem- ber, 1926	October, 1926
Professional, clerical, and general	282,977	287,373	287,916	\$39,260,590	\$39,323,387	\$39,932,132
Clerks	167,493	168,840	169,370	22,147,031	21,859,841	22,293,481
Stenographers and typists	25,117	25,587	25,609	3,118,010	3,135,996	3,174,180
Maintenance of way and structures	425,647	458,067	457,808	40,284,280	42,922,412	42,889,169
Laborers, extra gang and work train	64,728	79,908	79,127	5,232,451	6,376,616	6,354,437
Laborers, track and roadway sec- tion	223,981	233,986	233,988	17,079,387	17,212,062	17,561,102
Maintenance of equipment and stores	519,972	517,578	518,506	68,458,095	68,904,496	69,807,555
Carmen	116,710	113,893	114,151	17,571,622	16,568,659	17,386,108
Machinists	60,651	60,332	60,747	9,799,610	9,434,917	9,922,807
Skilled trades' helpers	113,303	113,916	114,872	12,821,038	12,441,902	13,120,800
Laborers (shops, engine houses, power plants, and stores)	43,046	42,451	42,829	4,161,827	3,964,312	4,128,725
Common laborers (shops, engine houses, power plants, and stores)	58,457	60,401	60,267	4,952,607	4,831,185	5,045,035
Transportation, other than train, en- gine, and yard	211,901	213,434	214,136	26,455,735	26,007,290	26,624,931
Station agents	30,907	30,683	30,597	4,863,585	4,748,683	4,791,560
Telegraphers, telephoners, and towermen	25,949	25,649	25,714	3,949,495	3,806,981	3,952,260
Truckers (stations, warehouses, and platforms)	41,648	40,216	41,526	4,089,551	3,727,479	3,990,135
Crossing and bridge flagmen and gatemen	22,589	22,419	22,256	1,700,957	1,688,994	1,672,011
Transportation (yard masters, switch tenders, and hostlers)	24,007	24,204	24,347	4,496,206	4,498,230	4,572,569
Transportation, train and engine	335,949	337,648	345,496	70,553,912	67,778,932	71,897,759
Road conductors	38,223	38,430	38,920	9,506,760	9,162,016	9,558,660
Road brakemen and flagmen	77,349	77,568	79,215	14,377,146	13,707,381	14,380,951
Yard brakemen and yard helpers	54,954	55,537	57,742	9,869,769	9,530,748	10,315,078
Road engineers and motormen	45,285	45,808	46,402	12,828,595	12,362,969	12,977,002
Road firemen and helpers	46,912	47,031	47,507	9,577,684	9,188,065	9,648,695

State Reports on Employment

California

THE following data, taken from the November, 1926, Labor Market Bulletin, issued by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of California, show changes in volume of employment and pay roll from October, 1925, to October, 1926, in 676 establishments in that State:

PER CENT OF CHANGE IN NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES AND IN TOTAL AMOUNT OF WEEKLY PAY ROLL IN 676 CALIFORNIA ESTABLISHMENTS, OCTOBER, 1926, COMPARED WITH OCTOBER, 1925

Industry	Number of firms report- ing	Employees		Weekly pay roll	
		Number in October, 1926	Per cent of change as com- pared with October, 1925	Amount in October, 1926	Per cent of change as com- pared with October, 1925
Stone, clay, and glass products:					
Miscellaneous stone and mineral products	9	1,819	+12.1	\$55,679	+13.3
Lime, cement, plaster	8	2,291	+8.6	72,059	+13.4
Brick, tile, pottery	21	3,694	+5.9	89,594	+4.4
Glass	5	867	+8.0	28,792	+10.6
Total	43	8,671	+8.1	246,124	+9.6

PER CENT OF CHANGE IN NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES AND IN TOTAL AMOUNT OF WEEKLY PAY ROLL IN 676 CALIFORNIA ESTABLISHMENTS, OCTOBER, 1926, COMPARED WITH OCTOBER, 1925—Continued

Industry	Number of firms reporting	Employees		Weekly pay roll	
		Number in October, 1926	Per cent of change as compared with October, 1925	Amount in October, 1926	Per cent of change as compared with October, 1925
Metals, machinery, and conveyances:					
Agricultural implements	6	1,147	+45.9	\$32,731	+28.2
Automobiles, including bodies and parts	14	3,258	-24.6	103,497	-27.0
Brass, bronze, and copper products	8	992	-5.7	27,921	-3.4
Engines, pumps, boilers, and tanks	11	1,150	-7	38,115	+3.6
Iron and steel forgings, bolts, nuts, etc.	8	3,180	+26.0	102,586	+28.5
Structural and ornamental steel	15	4,576	-16.8	150,939	-13.8
Ship and boat building and naval repairs	5	5,917	+42.1	190,213	+34.6
Tin cans	2	2,657	+12.8	70,977	+24.2
Other iron foundry and machine shop products	60	7,733	+9.6	240,791	+16.2
Other sheet metal products	24	1,843	+7.0	56,844	+8.4
Cars, locomotives, and railway repair shops	16	7,615	+5.5	235,349	+7.7
Total	169	40,068	+5.8	1,249,963	+7.3
Wood manufactures:					
Sawmills and logging	24	12,734	+1	388,356	+2.1
Planing mills, sash, and door factories, etc.	46	10,870	-6.4	317,578	-6.7
Other wood manufactures	38	4,614	-4.9	133,100	-7.8
Total	108	28,218	-3.3	839,034	-3.0
Leather and rubber goods:					
Tanning	7	770	-7.5	20,822	-14.2
Finished leather products	6	543	-7.2	12,944	-2.3
Rubber products	7	2,081	+13.4	86,527	+17.7
Total	20	4,294	+6.1	120,293	+8.4
Chemicals, oils, paints, etc.:					
Explosives	4	528	+6.0	15,854	+7.0
Mineral oil refining	6	7,272	+30.8	261,582	+32.1
Paints, dyes, and colors	7	704	+2.9	18,042	+6.7
Miscellaneous chemical products	12	2,271	+10.8	63,202	+14.8
Total	29	10,775	+22.6	358,680	+26.0
Printing and paper goods:					
Paper boxes, bags, cartons, etc.	14	2,265	-8.9	57,984	-7.8
Printing	37	2,291	+8.0	86,777	+13.7
Publishing	16	3,932	+1.2	150,112	+6.4
Other paper products	8	1,212	+26.8	28,832	+24.6
Total	75	9,700	+2.2	323,705	+6.7
Textiles:					
Knit goods	7	734	-7.7	17,031	-5.1
Other textile products	6	1,647	+5	36,984	+4.7
Total	13	2,381	-2.1	54,015	+1.4
Clothing, millinery, and laundering:					
Men's clothing	23	3,143	+2.4	74,194	+0.6
Women's clothing	11	856	+4.4	18,356	+13.4
Millinery	7	593	+7.8	10,817	+1.7
Laundering, cleaning, and dyeing	21	3,179	-8	75,524	+4.9
Total	62	7,771	+1.7	178,891	+7.4
Foods, beverages, and tobacco:					
Canning, preserving of fruits and vegetables	22	12,473	+16.8	263,539	+23.7
Canning, packing of fish	9	1,371	-1.6	29,012	+41.5
Confectionery and ice cream	26	1,780	+1.5	40,546	+3.0
Groceries, not elsewhere specified	5	592	-11.6	13,635	-12.2
Bread and bakery products	18	3,177	+3.5	92,796	+7
Sugar	5	3,750	-12.5	99,952	-19.5
Slaughtering and meat products	15	2,610	-2.8	76,886	-7
Cigars and other tobacco products	4	1,045	-2.1	18,812	-8.5
Beverages	3	429	-4.9	10,917	+8.1
Dairy products	10	2,701	+12.6	88,364	+11.0
Flour and grist mills	7	657	-8.5	20,003	+4.9
Ice manufactures	4	805	-6.2	26,297	-6.9
Other food products	11	857	+1.7	19,763	+5.1
Total	139	32,247	+4.5	800,522	+5.5
Water, light, and power	5	8,674	-7.4	266,449	-5.6
Miscellaneous	13	2,580	+31.8	66,295	+29.0
Grand total, all industries	676	155,379	+3.8	4,503,971	+5.6

Illinois

THE November, 1926, issue of the Labor Bulletin, published by the Illinois Department of Labor, contains the following statistics showing the changes in employment and earnings in Illinois State factories in October, 1926, as compared with September, 1926:

CHANGES IN EMPLOYMENT AND EARNINGS IN ILLINOIS STATE FACTORIES FROM SEPTEMBER TO OCTOBER, 1926

Industry	Per cent of change, from September to October, 1926			
	Employment			Total earnings
	Male	Female	Total employees	
Stone, clay, and glass products:				
Miscellaneous stone and mineral products.....	+4.7	0.0	+3.2	+2.9
Lime, cement and plaster.....	-2.1	-7.7	-2.2	-1.9
Brick, tile and pottery.....	-2.0	-4.0	-1.5	+4.5
Glass.....	+3.6	+3.9	+3.6	+11.2
Total.....	+1.1	+2.2	+1.2	-5.9
Metals, machinery, and conveyances:				
Iron and steel.....	+1	+3.0	+2	+2.1
Sheet-metal work and hardware.....	+1.1	+2	+3	-6.0
Tools and cutlery.....	+13.3	+59.6	+17.1	-24.7
Cooking, heating, ventilating apparatus.....	+5	-2.6	+4	+6.4
Brass, copper, zinc, babbitt metal.....	+5	+2.0	0.0	+1.9
Cars and locomotives.....	-12.4	+12.7	-12.0	-3.9
Automobiles and accessories.....	-3.0	-2.1	+2.6	+9.2
Machinery.....	+7	-4.5	+6	+14.2
Electrical apparatus.....	+4.0	+6.3	+2.9	+10.8
Agricultural implements.....	+1.7	-9.8	+1.6	+10.7
Instruments and appliances.....	+2.0	+9.0	+3.1	+12.3
Watches, watch cases, clocks, and jewelry.....	+7	-1	+4	-8
Total.....	-5	+1.6	+2	+5.1
Wood products:				
Sawmill and planing-mill products.....	-3.5	-1.3	-3.6	+6
Furniture and cabinet work.....	+4.5	+4.7	+4.5	+7.4
Pianos, organs, and other musical instruments.....	+4.7	+8.7	+4.0	+17.8
Miscellaneous wood products.....	+3.9	-3.9	+3.2	+15.2
Household furnishings.....	+5.2	-3	+3.4	+3.4
Total.....	+3.0	+1.9	+2.8	+8.7
Furs and leather goods:				
Leather.....	+6.6	+1.4	+6.0	+12.0
Furs and fur goods.....	+5.0	+2.7	+4.1	+30.4
Boots and shoes.....	-1.8	-1.6	-1.7	+3.5
Miscellaneous leather goods.....	+14.0	+6.1	+9.4	+21.8
Total.....	+2.9	+3	+4	+6.9
Chemicals, oils, paints, etc.:				
Drugs and chemicals.....	-2.4	+4.9	+1.2	-0.0
Paints, dyes, and colors.....	+3	0.0	+1.8	+11.6
Mineral and vegetable oil.....	+7.5	+14.5	+7.9	+14.1
Miscellaneous chemical products.....	-2.0	-10.6	-3.2	+1.6
Total.....	+2.1	+1.2	+2.1	+7.7
Printing and paper goods:				
Paper boxes, bags, and tubes.....	-4	+8.2	+2.3	+8.0
Miscellaneous paper goods.....	+2.8	+2.0	+2.5	+3.1
Job printing.....	-2.8	-10.3	-4.8	+5.4
Newspapers and periodicals.....	+1.8	+5.5	+1.0	+4.5
Edition bookbinding.....	+1	+1.8	+5	+13.8
Total.....	-9	-2.6	-1.2	+6.1

CHANGES IN EMPLOYMENT AND EARNINGS IN ILLINOIS STATE FACTORIES FROM SEPTEMBER TO OCTOBER, 1926—Continued

Industry	Per cent of change, from September to October, 1926			Total earnings	
	Employment				
	Male	Female	Total employees		
Textiles:					
Cotton and woolen goods	+0.4	+2.2	+0.6	-5.6	
Knit goods, cotton, and woolen hosiery	-.6	+4.9	+4.5	+4.7	
Thread and twine	+7.5	+5.9	+5.4	+10.7	
Total	+1.1	+4.4	+3.6	+1.1	
Clothing, millinery, laundering:					
Men's clothing	-2.4	-1.0	-1.5	-.8	
Men's shirts and furnishings	0.0	+16.1	+1.0	+22.1	
Overalls and work clothing	+3.1	-.9	-.5	-1.2	
Men's hats and caps	+2.5	+20.0	+8.3	-31.1	
Women's clothing	-3.8	-.6	-1.4	+6.9	
Women's underwear	+5.4	-.7	+10.4	+17.5	
Women's hats	-26.3	-7.9	-13.5	-30.0	
Laundering, cleaning, and dyeing	-3.8	-1.1	-2.0	-1.6	
Total	-3.1	-1.0	-.7	+0.0	
Food, beverages, and tobacco:					
Flour, feed, and other cereal products	.1	+31.8	+2.8	+2.6	
Fruit and vegetable canning and preserving	-65.1	-85.5	-71.4	-77.4	
Miscellaneous groceries	+2.0	-12.9	+.2	+12.1	
Slaughtering and meat packing	-.1	+10.0	+1.2	-1.9	
Dairy products	+1.8	+9.5	+2.3	-.8	
Bread and other bakery products	+.1	+5.3	+1.9	+1.1	
Confectionery	+10.3	-2.7	-12.1	-4.0	
Beverages	-10.8	+8.4	-4.0	-4.8	
Cigars and other tobacco products	-7.0	-1.2	-3.8	+8.3	
Manufactured ice	-15.6		-15.6	-20.6	
Ice cream	-2.2	-4.4	-2.4	-1.8	
Total	-4.6	-8.5	-5.9	-4.5	
Total, all manufacturing industries	-.7	-1.3	-0.5	+3.7	
Trade—wholesale and retail:					
Department stores	+.6	+1.0	+.8	+3.3	
Wholesale dry goods	+6.0	+5.0	+5.4	+4.5	
Wholesale groceries	-.2	+20.6	+5.1	+11.5	
Mail-order houses	+1.6	+.3	+1.5	+2.6	
Total	+1.4	+1.4	+1.6	+3.3	
Public utilities:					
Water, light, and power	+.3	-1.5	0.0	+1.8	
Telephone	+.8	-.4	0.0	+.6	
Street railways	-.8	-2.7	-.6	+3.1	
Railway car repair shops	+.5	+3.1	+.6	+7.9	
Total	-.1	-.5	-.1	+2.8	
Coal mining	+6.0		+6.0	+12.7	
Building and contracting:					
Building construction	+12.9		+12.9	+10.2	
Road construction	+27.8		+27.8	+26.3	
Miscellaneous contracting	-1.1		-1.1	+39.8	
Total	+11.3		+11.3	+14.4	
Grand total, all industries	+.4	-.8	+.2	+4.4	

Iowa

THE Bureau of Labor of Iowa, in its publication, the Iowa Employment Survey, for November, 1926, gives the following statistics showing the per cent of change in the number of employees in specified industries in that State in November, 1926, as compared with the previous month:

CHANGES IN VOLUME OF EMPLOYMENT IN IOWA, OCTOBER TO NOVEMBER, 1926

Industry	Number of firms reporting	Employees on pay roll November, 1926	
		Number	Per cent of change as compared with October, 1926
Food and kindred products:			
Meat packing	7	5,753	+0.9
Cereals	3	1,237	-7.7
Flour	4	141	+15.6
Bakery products	8	934	-1.8
Confectionery	6	438	+.9
Poultry products, butter, etc.	9	1,418	-5.6
Sugar, starch, sirup, glucose, etc.	2	720	-6.2
Other food products, coffee, etc.	6	150	-5.1
Total	45	10,791	-1.6
Textiles:			
Clothing, men's	11	1,096	-2.3
Millinery	2	147	+2.1
Clothing, women's, and woolen goods	3	548	-9.4
Hosiery, awnings, etc.	6	686	+2.2
Buttons, pearl	8	600	-12.2
Total	30	3,077	-4.5
Iron and steel works:			
Foundry and machine shops	28	2,614	-6.9
Brass, bronze products, plumbers' supplies	11	2,736	-2.3
Autos, tractors, and engines	8	2,744	-2.5
Furnaces	8	578	-3.7
Pumps	4	369	-4.4
Agricultural implements	10	964	+1.6
Washing machines	9	2,485	+1.3
Total	78	12,490	-2.5
Lumber products:			
Millwork, interiors, etc.	18	3,438	+.2
Furniture, desks, etc.	10	1,207	0.0
Refrigerators	3	146	+.7
Coffins, undertakers' supplies	5	170	0.0
Carriages, wagons, truck bodies	5	128	-7.3
Total	41	5,089	-1
Leather products:			
Shoes	3	376	-9.2
Saddlery and harness	6	197	+4.2
Fur goods and tanning	5	129	-5.2
Gloves and mittens	5	348	-1.7
Total	19	1,050	-3.9
Paper products, printing and publishing:			
Paper products	4	231	-1.3
Printing and publishing	17	2,682	-2.1
Total	21	2,913	-3.0
Proprietary medicines and compounds	8	499	-3.3

CHANGES IN VOLUME OF EMPLOYMENT IN IOWA, OCTOBER TO NOVEMBER, 1926—Continued

Industry	Number of firms reporting	Number	Employees on pay roll November, 1926
			Per cent of change as compared with October, 1926
Stone and clay products:			
Cement, plaster, gypsum	9	2,458	+1.3
Brick and tile (clay)	13	984	-4.9
Marble, granite, crushed rock, and stone	3	92	-12.4
Total	25	3,533	-9
Tobacco and cigars	5	387	+8.7
Railway car shops	6	8,668	+8
Various industries:			
Auto tires and tubes	2	242	-6.2
Brooms and brushes	5	156	+24.8
Laundries	4	163	+6.2
Mercantile	10	3,176	+5.8
Public service	4	1,417	+3
Seeds	3	342	+39.6
Wholesale houses	25	1,354	+7
Commission houses	10	253	-3.4
Other industries	6	870	+1.2
Total	69	7,973	+3.4
Grand total	347	56,471	-8

Maryland

THE commissioner of labor and statistics of Maryland furnished the following report on volume of employment in Maryland from October to November, 1926, covering 44,642 employees, and a pay roll totaling \$1,128,343:

CHANGES IN EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS IN MARYLAND IN NOVEMBER, 1926

Industry	Establishments reporting both months	Employment		Pay roll	
		Number of employees November, 1926	Per cent of change as compared with October, 1926	Amount, November, 1926	Per cent of change as compared with October, 1926
Bakery	3	394	+4.5	\$9,242	+8.0
Beverages and soft drinks	3	120	-13.7	3,295	-16.5
Boots and shoes	8	1,307	+3.9	23,303	-9.0
Boxes, fancy and paper	9	544	-3.6	7,403	-7.8
Boxes, wooden	4	206	-1.5	3,685	-1.5
Brass and bronze	3	2,450	+2.6	60,622	+2.4
Brick, tile, etc.	4	792	-3.3	19,831	-8.9
Brushes	6	1,146	+0.8	21,304	-4.2
Car building and repairing	3	4,555	+2.1	104,418	+5.0
Chemicals	6	1,251	-6.1	32,108	-10.4
Clothing, men's outer garments	4	1,981	-5.3	30,060	-31.3
Clothing, women's outer garments	3	247	-5.8	3,470	-18.7
Confectionery	5	883	-11.3	12,732	-2.8
Cotton goods	4	2,225	-2.2	36,841	+4
Fertilizer	5	534	-14.5	12,847	-5.4
Food preparation	4	155	+1.3	3,777	-1.2
Foundry	10	1,215	+4	29,381	-1.8

CHANGES IN EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS IN MARYLAND IN NOVEMBER, 1926—Continued

Industry	Establishments reporting both months	Employment		Pay roll	
		Number of employees November, 1926	Per cent of change as compared with October, 1926	Amount, November, 1926	Per cent of change as compared with October, 1926
Furnishing goods, men's	5	860	-5.0	\$12,499	+0.9
Furniture	11	1,192	-3	27,984	-6
Glass manufacturing	3	780	+20.1	15,875	+8.6
Ice cream	4	274	-7.8	8,890	-4.5
Leather goods	6	753	-4	13,525	-6.1
Lithographing	3	491	-2.0	14,433	-2.1
Lumber and planing	9	618	-2.9	16,453	-3.1
Mattresses and spring beds	3	89	+1.1	2,138	+2
Pianos	3	1,006	+4	29,647	+2.6
Plumbers' supplies	4	1,515	-3.2	35,894	-6.8
Printing	7	1,112	-2	28,915	-6
Rubber tire manufacture	1	2,866	-12.5	156,491	-18.5
Shipbuilding	3	737	-6.5	27,442	+8.1
Shirts	4	605		8,065	-3.9
Stamping and enameling ware	5	1,217	-1.2	24,412	-4.1
Tin ware	3	2,341	-5.1	48,620	-5.1
Tobacco	7	912	+3.9	15,375	+4.1
Miscellaneous	20	5,442	+3	119,895	-4.7

Massachusetts

THE following changes in volume of employment in various industries in Massachusetts from September to October, 1926, are taken from a press release issued by the department of labor and industries of that State:

NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES IN 1,063 MANUFACTURING ESTABLISHMENTS IN MASSACHUSETTS, WEEK ENDING NEAREST TO SEPTEMBER 15 AND OCTOBER 15, 1926

Industry	Number of establish- ments reporting	Number of wage earners employed		
		September, 1926	October, 1926	
			Full time	Part time
Automobiles, including bodies and parts	17	4,042	1,221	1,080
Bookbinding	15	966	706	256
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	45	2,423	1,757	750
Boots and shoes	89	27,997	16,444	11,223
Boxes, paper	27	2,316	1,685	692
Boxes, wooden packing	13	1,096	1,075	80
Bread and other bakery products	51	4,360	4,215	154
Carpets and rugs	5	3,423	95	3,369
Cars and general shop construction and repairs, steam railroads	4	2,883	2,244	666
Clothing, men's	30	3,859	3,282	677
Clothing, women's	34	1,628	1,282	411
Confectionery	18	4,138	3,549	844
Copper, tin, sheet iron, etc.	15	465	480	8
Cotton goods	56	40,107	27,648	14,282
Cutlery and tools	20	2,095	1,823	280
Dyeing and finishing textiles	9	6,460	1,315	5,092
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	17	11,368	10,982	376
Foundry products	27	2,906	1,963	999
Furniture	38	3,952	3,858	250
Gas and by-products	13	1,193	1,199	
Hosiery and knit goods	12	4,742	3,117	1,770
Jewelry	36	2,386	2,204	307
Leather, tanned, curried, and finished	32	6,847	6,013	967
Machine-shop products	46	8,500	7,659	794
Machine and other tools	26	2,675	2,280	481
Musical instruments	13	1,292	1,254	48

NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES IN 1,063 MANUFACTURING ESTABLISHMENTS IN MASSACHUSETTS, WEEK ENDING NEAREST TO SEPTEMBER 15 AND OCTOBER 15, 1926—Continued

Industry	Number of establish- ments reporting	Number of wage earners employed		
		October, 1926		
		Septem- ber, 1926	Full time	Part time
Paper and wood pulp	26	6,591	4,463	2,132
Printing and publishing, book and job	51	3,923	2,273	1,679
Printing and publishing, newspaper	18	2,377	2,401	—
Rubber footwear	3	9,115	9,062	—
Rubber goods	7	2,643	2,942	—
Silk goods	10	4,145	1,911	2,264
Slaughtering and meat packing	5	1,541	300	1,212
Stationery goods	12	1,941	1,960	84
Steam fittings and steam and hot-water heating apparatus	9	1,721	1,742	—
Stoves and stove linings	5	1,671	561	1,223
Textile machinery and parts	13	4,208	411	3,791
Tobacco	5	882	698	174
Woolen and worsted goods	60	19,677	10,447	9,961
All other industries	131	30,044	14,947	14,947
Total, all industries	1,063	244,598	163,468	83,323
				246,791

New Jersey

THE following data, issued by the New Jersey Department of Labor, show changes in volume of employment and pay roll from September to October, 1926, in 877 establishments in that State:

PER CENT OF CHANGE IN NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES AND IN TOTAL AMOUNT OF WEEKLY PAY ROLL IN 877 NEW JERSEY ESTABLISHMENTS OCTOBER, 1926, COMPARED WITH SEPTEMBER, 1926

Industry	Number of plants reporting	Employees		Weekly pay roll	
		Number in October, 1926	Per cent of change as compared with September, 1926	Amount in October, 1926	Per cent of change as compared with September, 1926
Food and kindred products:					
Baking	16	1,484	+4.1	\$47,915	+5.2
Canning and preserving	10	4,679	-27.5	84,951	-33.9
Confectionery and ice cream	7	467	+4.2	9,296	+4.0
Provisions	3	1,291	-20.9	39,628	-13.7
Other food products	12	2,738	+2.8	80,107	+14.6
Total	48	10,659	-15.6	261,897	-12.6
Textiles and their products:					
Carpets and rugs	3	1,159	+1.8	39,819	+11.3
Clothing	32	4,264	+7.1	82,699	+14.0
Cotton goods	15	7,403	+4.1	146,816	+9.8
Dyeing and finishing textiles	35	9,974	+2.7	249,721	+4.2
Hats and caps	6	1,176	-3	38,582	-4.5
Hosiery and knit goods	17	3,874	+1.2	106,171	+7.6
Millinery and lace	10	985	+1.9	18,915	+7.1
Shirts and collars	9	2,097	+1.5	40,683	+5.1
Silk goods	58	9,246	+5.8	243,312	+14.7
Woolen and worsted goods	18	7,565	+10.7	192,288	+19.5
Miscellaneous textile products	10	2,099	+9.1	50,184	+9.6
Total	213	49,842	+5.0	1,209,190	+10.3

PER CENT OF CHANGE IN NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES AND IN TOTAL AMOUNT OF WEEKLY PAY ROLL IN 87 NEW JERSEY ESTABLISHMENTS OCTOBER, 1926, COMPARED WITH SEPTEMBER, 1926—Continued

Industry	Number of plants reporting	Employees		Weekly pay roll	
		Number in October, 1926	Per cent of change as compared with September, 1926	Amount in October, 1926	Per cent of change as compared with September, 1926
Iron and steel and their products:					
Cast-iron pipe	6	3,557	-3.0	\$104,720	-\$0.9
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	30	21,927	+3.4	601,613	+8.4
Foundry and machine-shop products	77	18,902	-3.5	559,634	-4.7
Hardware	7	974	-5.2	27,724	+5.1
Iron and steel forgings	8	646	+13.5	17,914	+6.9
Machine tools	22	4,371	+2.0	121,163	+2.6
Steam fittings and steam and hot-water heating apparatus	13	4,347	+.8	151,519	-4.8
Structural iron works	10	1,706	-1.4	49,325	-4.1
Total	173	56,430	+.1	1,633,612	+.9
Lumber and its products:					
Furniture	5	1,319	-3.1	39,718	+2.4
Lumber and millwork	15	775	+1.7	22,869	+5.8
Total	20	2,094	-1.4	62,587	+3.6
Leather and its products:					
Boots and shoes	7	1,191	+.3	29,428	-.9
Leather	24	3,738	-2.1	116,223	+6.0
Leather products	4	587	+1.2	14,543	+10.2
Total	35	5,516	-1.3	160,194	+5.0
Tobacco products:					
Paper and printing:					
Paper and pulp	22	3,932	-.5	112,282	+3.9
Paper boxes	18	1,626	+8.1	36,195	+19.3
Printing, book and job	10	1,937	+2.8	56,082	+1.4
Printing newspapers	9	1,598	-.1	66,140	+1.7
Total	59	9,063	+1.7	270,699	+4.7
Chemicals and allied products:					
Chemicals	41	9,338	+4.2	251,535	+4.0
Explosives	6	2,437	-3.3	67,625	-2.0
Oils and greases	9	1,701	+4.0	47,914	+1.5
Paints and varnishes	13	1,802	-3.2	56,079	-.3
Petroleum refining	8	16,404	-1.8	527,992	-6.6
Total	77	31,682	-.3	951,145	-2.9
Stone, clay, and glass products:					
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	28	4,284	-4.9	125,458	-3.5
Glass	8	3,717	+5.1	83,821	+6.2
Pottery	22	5,299	-.8	164,419	-.1
Other products	2	1,029	-.2	44,705	+4.2
Total	60	14,329	-.6	418,403	+5.5
Metal products other than iron and steel:					
Brass, bronze, and copper products	12	910	-3.1	29,382	-7.0
Sheet metal and enameled ware	23	4,630	-3.5	121,091	-4.6
Smelting and refining	9	4,528	+.4	143,942	+2.0
Wire and wire goods	16	8,039	+.2	244,663	+15.7
Total	60	18,107	-.9	539,078	+5.5
Vehicles for land transportation:					
Automobiles and parts	13	6,351	-2.2	195,169	-.4
Car building, repairing, steam railroad	9	5,652	+1.0	178,806	+1.5
Total	22	12,003	-.7	373,975	+5.5
Miscellaneous industries:					
Cork and cork specialties	5	1,782	+1.7	48,557	+16.6
Jewelry and novelties	31	4,655	+4.4	147,122	+15.1
Laundries	8	950	-2.3	19,081	-4.4
Musical instruments	5	9,035	+8.0	278,198	+35.4
Rubber tires and goods	31	11,234	+1.7	303,723	+2.5
Shipbuilding	6	7,012	+2.9	220,199	+6.7
Unclassified	9	3,412	+.3	98,720	+1.9
Total	95	38,080	+3.4	1,115,600	+12.2
Grand total, all industries	877	251,588	+.4	7,065,414	+3.4

New York

THE New York State Department of Labor has furnished the following tabulation of changes in employment and pay rolls in New York State factories in October, 1926. The table is based on returns from a fixed list of approximately 1,700 factories, whose weekly pay roll for the middle week of October was \$14,852,927.

CHANGES IN EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS IN NEW YORK STATE FACTORIES FROM OCTOBER, 1925, AND SEPTEMBER, 1926, TO OCTOBER, 1926

Industry	Per cent of change			
	September to October, 1926		October, 1925, to October, 1926	
	Employ- ment	Pay roll	Employ- ment	Pay roll
Stone, clay, and glass:				
Miscellaneous stone and minerals	+2.6	+1.9	+3.6	+9.0
Lime, cement, and plaster	-2.4	-4.8	+3.9	+6.4
Cement	-.7	-3.2	+1.1	+3.4
Brick, tile, and pottery	-7.3	-7.6	-3.7	-0.6
Brick	-11.6	-10.2	+.1	+8.2
Pottery	+.1	+.9	-7.9	-9.5
Glass	+9.4	+8.4	-3.8	-4.3
Total	-.6	-1.5	-.2	+3.0
Metals and machinery:				
Silver and jewelry	+1.9	+.4	-4.8	-.8
Brass, copper, and aluminum	-.6	-2.3	-2.2	+.2
Iron and steel	+5.4	+5.2	+14.2	+15.9
Structural and architectural iron	+3.4	+5.9	-2.9	+3.5
Sheet metal and hardware	-.8	-1.3	+2.6	+4.7
Hardware	+.4	-2.2	+1.3	+2.4
Stamped and enameled ware	-2.7	+1.2	-5.7	-4.6
Firearms, tools, and cutlery	+.5	+3.0	+26.0	+28.6
Cutlery and tools	+2.9	+8.5	+4.2	+8.7
Cooking, heating, ventilating apparatus	-4.3	-7.6	-8.1	-8.9
Steam and hot-water heating	-5.9	-9.9	-8.4	-9.2
Stoves	+17.8	+28.5	-3.8	-6.2
Machinery, including electrical apparatus	+1.3	-2.1	+4.5	+3.3
Agricultural implements	+6.1	+16.9	-8.7	-9.0
Electrical machinery and apparatus	+2.4	+.8	+5.3	+5.6
Foundries and machine shops	-.7	-6.9	+4.8	+1.9
Automobiles, carriages, and aeroplanes	-1.2	-2.9	-11.0	-12.3
Automobiles and parts	-1.6	-3.4	-12.2	-13.9
Railroad equipment and repair	+.8	+4.2	+7.6	+10.1
Locomotives and equipment	-4.6	-10.1	+22.4	+23.4
Railway repair shops	+4.0	+13.1	+.9	+4.4
Boat and ship building	+.9	+3.4	+6.8	+1.7
Instruments and appliances	+.8	+.4	+4.4	+7.4
Total	+.6	-.3	+2.9	+3.3
Wood manufactures:				
Saw and planing mills	-1.2	+.7	-4.3	+1.2
Millwork	-.3	+1.1	-3.9	+3.7
Sawmills	-4.0	-2.7	-8.4	-9.6
Furniture and cabinet work	+1.0	+3.5	+1.4	+5.1
Furniture	+1.9	+3.9	+2.4	+5.3
Pianos and other musical instruments	+1.3	+3.2	-1.3	+6.2
Miscellaneous wood, etc.	+.4	+2.5	+3.4	+10.0
Total	+.5	+2.7	(1)	+5.4
Furs, leather, and rubber goods:				
Leather	+2.9	+.7	-.2	+4.3
Furs and fur goods	+1.4	+13.0	+9.2	+20.4
Shoes	+.2	+.9	-5.1	+5.3
Other leather and canvas goods	+.9	+14.1	-1.8	+10.3
Rubber and gutta percha	+10.3	+8.4	-5.8	+3.9
Pearl, horn, bone, etc.	+.4	+4.8	-9.6	-5.0
Total	+1.2	+4.1	-4.3	+6.0

¹ Not reported.

CHANGES IN EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS IN NEW YORK STATE FACTORIES
FROM OCTOBER, 1925, AND SEPTEMBER, 1926, TO OCTOBER, 1926—Continued

Industry	Per cent of change			
	September to October, 1926		October, 1925, to October, 1926	
	Employ- ment	Pay roll	Employ- ment	Pay roll
Chemicals, oils, paints, etc.:				
Drugs and chemicals	+3.0	+5.1	+8.4	+15.1
Paints and colors	+1.4	+1.3	-5.8	-1.3
Oil products	+2.3	+3.2	+4.8	+6.1
Petroleum refining	-4	-7.6	-2.0	-4.1
Miscellaneous chemicals	+2	+7	+9.2	+9.3
Total	+1.8	+2.6	+5.9	+8.4
Paper:				
Printing and paper goods:				
Paper boxes and tubes	+1.4	+4.6	+1.0	+5.1
Miscellaneous paper goods	+3.8	+2.2	+1.6	+1.2
Printing and bookmaking	+1.4	+9	+2.5	+5.9
Printing, newspapers	+2.0	+1.7	-2.4	-1.1
Printing, book and job	+4	-3	+3.0	+7.2
Total	+1.8	+1.3	+2.2	+5.3
Textiles:				
Silk and silk goods	-.9	+4.6	-17.6	-12.6
Wool manufactures	+1.7	+4.8	+.8	+8.9
Carpets and rugs	+1.6	+6.3	+.7	+9.4
Woolens and worsteds	+8.2	+7.4	-7.7	+1.1
Cotton goods	+2.6	+2.8	+10.6	+17.3
Knit goods (except silk)	+3.6	+5.8	-9.7	-9.2
Other textiles	+3.1	+4.1	-2.7	+1.6
Dyeing and finishing	+4.8	+5.6	-2.9	+4
Total	+2.2	+4.6	-4.6	+1.0
Clothing and millinery:				
Men's clothing	-2.3	-8.5	-2.6	-4.9
Men's furnishings	+4.2	+13.3	-11.3	-10.3
Shirts and collars	+3.5	+12.4	-11.8	-13.6
Women's clothing	+6.6	+13.3	-12.6	-14.6
Women's underwear	+9.2	+16.2	+.6	+4.2
Women's headwear	+5.1	-5.9	+4.7	+8.3
Miscellaneous sewing	+6.4	+7.7	+1.2	+1.6
Laundering and cleaning	+1.4	+2.3	+1.7	+2.8
Total	+2.7	+2.9	-5.6	-6.6
Food and tobacco:				
Flour, feed, and cereals	-.6	+5.1	-6.1	-7.3
Flour	+.7	-2.9	-10.4	-13.0
Canning and preserving	-2.3	+5.9	+3.7	+4.0
Other groceries	-3.8	-3.4	-9.4	-4.8
Sugar refining	-10.8	-7.7	-18.0	-9.4
Meat and dairy products	-1.0	-3.1	-4.8	-7
Meat packing	-.3	-2.1	-4.2	+1
Bakery products	+.7	+3	-5.2	-5.6
Candy	+7.8	+7.3	+2.3	+5.1
Beverages	-3.8	+1	-.6	+6.0
Tobacco	-.7	-.8	-27.3	-26.6
Total	+.9	+.6	-7.4	-5.2
Water, light, and power	+1.9	+2.0	+2.2	+5.0
Grand total	+1.2	+1.3	-.7	+2.0

Oklahoma

THE November 15, 1926, issue of the Oklahoma Labor Market, published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of Oklahoma, shows the changes in employment and pay rolls in 710 establishments in that State from September to October, 1926, as follows:

CHANGES IN EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS IN 710 INDUSTRIAL ESTABLISHMENTS IN OKLAHOMA, SEPTEMBER TO OCTOBER, 1926

Industry	Number of plants reporting	October, 1926			
		Employment		Pay roll	
		Number of employees	Per cent of change as compared with September, 1926	Amount	Per cent of change as compared with September, 1926
Cottonseed oil mills	13	331	+57.6	\$6,229	+41.3
Food production:					
Bakeries	35	573	+4	14,735	+4.3
Confectioneries	7	90	+30.4	1,231	+26.4
Creameries and dairies	11	154	-17.2	3,017	-20.2
Flour mills	44	411	-4.9	9,888	-9
Ice and ice cream	33	429	-17.0	11,428	-15.6
Meat and poultry	14	1,506	-3.2	34,659	-7.8
Lead and zinc:					
Mines and mills	46	3,276	-5.8	93,689	-7.6
Smelters	17	2,272	+2	62,550	+8
Metals and machinery:					
Auto repairs, etc.	29	1,315	-14.0	45,068	-6.1
Foundry and machine shops	38	1,132	-5.4	32,227	-1
Tank construction and erection	16	786	+2.3	19,010	-4
Oil industry:					
Production and gasoline manufacture	123	4,259	-7.6	131,171	-2.5
Refineries	66	5,445	-10.8	188,939	-5.4
Printing: Job work	24	269	+7	8,012	+7
Public utilities:					
Steam railroad shops	11	1,772	+4.1	49,908	+1.5
Street railways	6	710	-	17,870	+9.8
Water, light and power	50	1,344	-3.8	35,550	-16.7
Stone, clay, and glass:					
Brick and tile	11	380	-9.1	7,380	-11.1
Cement and plaster	6	1,066	-2.4	26,619	-4.1
Crushed stone	6	202	-21.4	3,634	-17.2
Glass manufacturing	9	1,149	+24.8	27,839	+53.9
Textiles and cleaning:					
Textile manufacturing	9	398	-10.0	5,821	-1.9
Laundries and cleaning	52	1,431	+1	25,224	-9
Woodworking:					
Sawmills	14	454	-2.8	5,874	-8.8
Millwork, etc.	20	345	-1.1	8,783	-3.2
Total, all industries	710	31,499	-4.4	876,355	-3.0

Wisconsin

THE Wisconsin Labor Market for November, 1926, issued by the State industrial commission, contains the following data on volume of employment in Wisconsin industries in October, 1926:

PER CENT OF CHANGE IN NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES AND IN TOTAL AMOUNT OF PAY ROLL IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS IN WISCONSIN INDUSTRIES FROM OCTOBER, 1925, AND SEPTEMBER, 1926, TO OCTOBER, 1926

Industry	Per cent of change—			
	September to October, 1926		October, 1925, to October, 1926	
	Employ- ment	Pay roll	Employ- ment	Pay roll
<i>Manual</i>				
Agriculture				+4.1
Logging	+2.7		-15.2	
Mining	+.9	+3.7	+7.3	+21.8
Lead and zinc	+3.6	+11.0	-.4	+16.2
Iron	-4.7	-8.4	+30.1	+35.2
Stone crushing and quarrying	+9.9	+9.7	+15.7	-.7
Manufacturing	-2.3	+2.7	-1.9	-1.2
Stone and allied industries	+4.2	-1.8	-.8	+8.2
Brick, tile, and cement blocks	-10.1	-7.4	-15.9	-9.6
Stone finishing	0.0	+.7	+11.9	+17.7
Metal	-2.8	+3.6	-25.1	-22.5
Pig-iron and rolling-mill products	-8.2	-1.0	+14.0	+10.7
Structural-iron work	-2.1	-3.8	-1.9	-6.5
Foundries and machine shops	-4.2	+1.0	-1.8	-.3
Railroad repair shops	+.4	+5.7	-23.8	-18.9
Stoves	+4.5	+13.4	-1.2	+3.6
Aluminum and enamelware	+3.4	+13.8	-2.6	+1.3
Machinery	-11.8	-2.4	+5.3	-5.6
Automobiles	+1.3	+3.0	+9.5	+16.9
Other metal products	+.2	+10.0	-9.0	-2.2
Wood	-1.3	+5.4	-3.8	-3.9
Sawmills and planing mills	-6.2	-3.3	+28.4	+26.4
Box factories	+1.4	+9.0	+16.7	+7.0
Panel and veneer mills	+7.4	+14.5	-5.6	-2.6
Furniture	+1.0	+7.6	-6.6	+1.8
Sash, door, and interior finish	-.2	+6.6	-8.0	-2.6
Other wood products	-2.6	+18.4	-4.0	-11.8
Rubber	-3.6	-11.6	-1.9	-3.1
Leather	-1.6	+2.1	-16.1	-18.4
Tanning	-5.9	+3.5	+3.5	+6.5
Boots and shoes	0.0	+2.9	+14.0	+13.0
Other leather products	+1.9	-2.4	+7.1	+5.6
Paper	+2.4	+3.6	+11.9	+7.6
Paper and pulp mills	+2.4	+2.9	-2.8	+4.8
Paper boxes	+5.0	+7.8	-4.2	-3.0
Other paper products	+.2	+4.1	-5.1	+4.2
Textiles	+3.8	+9.9	-2.4	+8.2
Hosiery and other knit goods	+5.3	+13.3	+3.8	+19.3
Clothing	+.7	+5.9	-4.8	0.0
Other textile products	+5.4	+6.9	-4.5	-8.8
Foods	-14.8	-7.8	-2.3	+2.0
Meat packing	+.6	-1.4	-12.4	+3.8
Baking and confectionery	+1.6	+3.3	-28.8	-26.0
Milk products	-4.8	-6.6	-26.2	-35.4
Canning and preserving	-63.6	-49.8	-26.2	-7.1
Flour mills	-5.5	-.6	+11.3	+10.9
Tobacco manufacturing	+3.0	+2.8	+9.2	+13.2
Other food products	-10.9	-3.5	+6.7	+8.3
Light and power	+4.5	+4.6	0.0	+3.6
Printing and publishing	+1.4	+6.9	-11.8	-3.4
Laundering, cleaning, and dyeing	-.9	+2.7	-9.4	+7.5
Chemicals (including soap, glue, and explosives)	+2.0	+.9	-1.6	-2.1
Construction:				
Building	+7.7	+7.4	-4.0	-3.9
Highway	-9.9		-9.4	+7.5
Railroad	-17.0	-8.8	-1.6	-2.1
Marine, dredging, sewer digging	-36.6	-10.3	-36.5	-26.5
Communication:				
Steam railways	-7.9	-5.8	-2.5	-1.2
Electric railways	-3.4	-2.6	-14.9	-5.4
Express, telephone, and telegraph	-4.1	-4.5	+1.7	+1.2
Wholesale trade	-1.9	+3.5	-8.0	-1.9
Hotels and restaurants	+2.4		+12.1	
<i>Nonmanual</i>				
Manufacturing mines and quarries	+.4	+1.0	+4.8	+5.2
Construction	0.0	+1.7	-5.3	+3.2
Communication	-1.7	-.6	+2.2	+4.9
Wholesale trade	-3.4	-.3	-12.7	-17.9
Retail trade (sales force only)	+2.5	-.1	+5.1	-1.3
Miscellaneous professional services	-3.4	+.8	+6.8	+1.1
Hotels and restaurants	-4.2		+1.6	

PRICES AND COST OF LIVING

Retail Prices of Food in the United States

THE following tables are compiled from monthly reports of actual selling prices¹ received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from retail dealers.

Table 1 shows for the United States, retail prices of food November 15, 1925, and October 15 and November 15, 1926, as well as the percentage changes in the year and in the month. For example, the retail price per pound of butter was 59.7 cents on November 15, 1925; 54.3 cents on October 15, 1926; and 55.7 cents on November 15, 1926. These figures show a decrease of 7 per cent in the year and an increase of 3 per cent in the month.

The cost of the various articles of food combined shows a decrease of 3.3 per cent November 15, 1926, as compared with November 15, 1925, and an increase of 1.0 per cent November 15, 1926, as compared with October 15, 1926.

TABLE 1.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED FOOD ARTICLES AND PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE NOVEMBER 15, 1926, COMPARED WITH OCTOBER 15, 1926, AND NOVEMBER 15, 1925

[Percentage changes of five-tenths of 1 per cent and over are given in whole numbers]

Article	Unit	Average retail price on—			Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-) Nov. 15, 1926, compared with—	
		Nov. 15, 1925	Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1925	Oct. 15, 1926
					Cents	Cents
Sirloin steak	Pound	40.3	41.5	40.9	+1	-1
Round steak	do	34.4	36.0	35.5	+3	-1
Rib roast	do	29.5	30.6	30.2	+2	-1
Chuck roast	do	21.6	22.8	22.7	+5	-0.4
Plate beef	do	14.1	14.6	14.7	+4	+1
Pork chops	do	37.5	42.6	38.2	+2	-10
Bacon	do	49.2	51.7	51.0	+4	-1
Ham	do	53.5	59.8	58.4	+9	-2
Lamb, leg of	do	38.4	38.3	37.9	-1	-1
Hens	do	35.8	37.6	37.1	+4	-1
Salmon, canned, red	do	36.4	35.6	34.7	-5	-3
Milk, fresh	Quart	14.3	14.0	14.1	-1	+1
Milk, evaporated	15-16 oz. can	11.6	11.4	11.4	-2	0
Butter	Pound	59.7	54.3	55.7	-7	+3
Oleomargarine (all butter substitutes)	do	31.2	30.3	30.1	-4	-1
Cheese	do	37.4	36.7	36.9	-1	+1
Lard	do	23.3	21.9	21.1	-9	-4
Vegetable lard substitute	do	25.8	25.7	25.6	-1	-0.4
Eggs, strictly fresh	Dozen	69.4	58.2	66.0	-5	+13
Eggs, storage	do	47.4	45.9	47.0	-1	+2

¹ In addition to monthly retail prices of food and coal, the bureau publishes the prices of gas and electricity from each of 51 cities for the dates for which these data are secured.

TABLE 1.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED FOOD ARTICLES AND PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE NOVEMBER 15, 1926, COMPARED WITH OCTOBER 15, 1926, AND NOVEMBER 15, 1925—Continued

Article	Unit	Average retail price on—			Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-) Nov. 15, 1926, compared with—	
		Nov. 15, 1925	Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1925	Oct. 15, 1926
Bread	Pound	9.4	9.4	9.4	0	0
Flour	do	6.0	5.7	5.7	-5	0
Corn meal	do	5.3	5.1	5.1	-4	0
Rolled oats	do	9.2	9.1	9.1	-1	0
Corn flakes	8-oz. pkg.	11.0	10.9	10.9	-1	0
Wheat cereal	28-oz. pkg.	25.2	25.4	25.4	+1	0
Macaroni	Pound	20.5	20.1	20.1	-2	0
Rice	do	11.4	11.6	11.3	-1	-3
Beans, navy	do	9.9	9.1	9.3	-6	+2
Potatoes	do	5.2	3.8	4.0	-23	+5
Onions	do	5.7	5.0	5.0	-12	0
Cabbage	do	4.2	4.0	4.0	-5	0
Beans, baked	No. 2 can	12.3	11.7	11.7	-5	0
Corn, canned	do	17.1	16.3	16.3	-5	0
Peas, canned	do	18.1	17.4	17.3	-4	-1
Tomatoes, canned	do	12.9	12.1	12.1	-6	0
Sugar, granulated	Pound	6.6	7.1	7.1	+8	0
Tea	do	75.7	77.3	77.0	+2	-0.4
Coffee	do	51.2	50.9	50.8	-1	-0.2
Prunes	do	17.2	16.9	16.6	-3	-2
Raisins	do	14.2	14.8	14.6	+3	-1
Bananas	Dozen	34.7	34.9	34.9	+1	0
Oranges	do	65.5	56.0	55.1	-16	-2
Weighted food index					-3.3	+1.0

Table 2 shows for the United States average retail prices of specified food articles on November 15, 1913, and on November 15 of each year from 1920 to 1926, together with percentage changes in November of each of these specified years, compared with November, 1913. For example, the retail price per dozen of strictly fresh eggs was 49.7 cents in November, 1913; 86.1 cents in November, 1920; 69.5 cents in November, 1921; 64.5 cents in November, 1922; 66.3 cents in November, 1923; 68.1 cents in November, 1924; 69.4 cents in November, 1925, and 66 cents in November, 1926.

As compared with November, 1923, these figures show increases of 73 per cent in November, 1920; 40 per cent in November, 1921; 30 per cent in November, 1922; 33 per cent in November, 1923; 37 per cent in November, 1924; 40 per cent in November, 1925; and 33 per cent in November, 1926.

The cost of the various articles of food combined shows an increase of 54.1 per cent in November, 1926, as compared with November, 1913.

TABLE 2.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED FOOD ARTICLES AND PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE NOVEMBER 15 OF CERTAIN SPECIFIED YEARS COMPARED WITH NOVEMBER 15, 1913

[Percentage changes of five-tenths of 1 per cent and over are given in whole numbers]

Article	Unit	Average retail price on Nov. 15—									Per cent of increase Nov. 15 of each specified year compared with Nov. 15, 1913—						
		1913	1920	1921	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926	1920	1921	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926	
Sirloin steak	Pound	25.4	43.5	35.7	37.3	38.9	38.7	40.3	40.9	71	41	47	53	52	59	61	
Round steak	do	22.8	39.6	31.0	32.0	33.1	32.9	34.4	35.5	74	36	40	45	44	51	56	
Rib roast	do	19.8	32.6	26.8	27.5	28.3	28.2	29.5	30.2	65	35	39	43	42	49	53	
Chuck roast	do	16.3	25.3	19.2	19.6	20.4	20.4	21.6	22.7	55	18	20	25	25	33	39	
Plate beef	do	12.4	17.7	12.8	12.7	13.0	13.2	14.1	14.7	43	3	2	5	6	14	19	
Pork chops	do	21.5	44.1	32.0	33.0	32.8	31.6	37.5	38.2	105	49	53	34	47	74	78	
Bacon	do	27.2	53.0	39.7	40.9	38.5	40.1	44.9	45.1	95	46	50	42	47	81	88	
Ham	do	26.9	57.1	45.5	47.6	43.5	45.4	47.0	53.3	112	70	72	69	75	99	117	
Lamb, leg of	do	18.5	37.1	30.6	35.8	35.8	35.4	38.4	37.9	101	65	94	94	91	108	105	
Hens	do	20.6	42.9	35.8	33.9	33.7	34.5	35.5	37.1	108	74	65	64	67	74	80	
Salmon, canned, red	do	138.7	34.3	31.5	31.4	31.7	36.4	34.7	34.7	90	57	47	57	52	57	55	
Milk, fresh	Quart	9.1	17.3	14.3	13.1	14.1	13.8	14.3	14.1	90	57	47	57	52	57	55	
Milk, evaporated	(2)	15.1	13.3	11.7	12.2	11.0	11.1	11.4	11.4	90	57	47	57	52	57	55	
Butter	Pound	38.7	69.4	53.1	54.5	65.8	59.4	59.5	75.7	79	37	41	52	26	54	44	
Oleomargarine (all butter substitutes)	do	37.8	29.3	27.6	29.2	30.2	231.2	230.1	230.1	90	57	47	57	52	57	55	
Cheese	do	22.5	39.8	33.3	35.5	37.7	34.7	37.4	36.9	77	48	58	68	54	66	64	
Lard	do	15.9	28.9	16.6	17.6	18.9	22.4	23.3	21.1	82	4	11	19	41	47	33	
Vegetable lard substitute.	do	31.4	21.5	23.2	23.7	25.5	25.8	25.6	25.6	90	57	47	57	52	57	55	
Eggs, strictly fresh	Dozen	49.7	86.1	69.5	64.5	66.3	68.1	69.4	66.0	73	40	30	33	37	40	33	
Eggs, storage	do	34.3	66.2	46.4	39.8	42.3	47.3	47.4	47.0	93	35	16	23	38	38	37	
Bread	Pound	5.6	11.6	9.3	8.7	8.7	8.9	9.4	9.4	107	66	55	55	59	68	66	
Flour	do	3.3	7.3	5.1	4.8	4.6	5.4	6.0	5.7	121	55	45	39	64	82	73	
Corn meal	do	3.1	5.9	4.2	3.9	4.4	5.1	5.3	5.1	90	35	26	42	65	71	65	
Rolled oats	do	11.5	9.7	8.8	8.8	9.1	9.2	9.2	9.1	90	57	47	57	52	57	55	
Corn flakes	(3)	14.3	11.9	9.7	9.7	10.7	11.0	10.9	10.9	90	57	47	57	52	57	55	
Wheat cereal	(4)	30.4	29.7	25.6	24.3	24.4	25.2	22.5	4	90	57	47	57	52	57	55	
Macaroni	Pound	22.0	20.4	19.9	19.7	19.6	20.5	20.2	1	90	57	47	57	52	57	55	
Rice	do	8.7	14.2	9.4	9.5	9.7	10.5	11.4	11.3	90	57	47	57	52	57	55	
Beans, navy	do	10.1	18.2	10.2	10.5	10.1	9.9	9.9	9.3	90	57	47	57	52	57	55	
Potatoes	do	1.8	3.3	3.2	2.1	2.6	2.2	2.5	4.0	83	78	17	44	22	189	122	
Onions	do	4.3	7.5	4.4	6.3	5.1	5.7	5.7	5.0	90	57	47	57	52	57	55	
Cabbage	do	3.5	4.6	3.4	3.9	3.7	4.2	4.0	4.0	90	57	47	57	52	57	55	
Beans, baked	(5)	16.5	13.9	13.2	12.9	12.6	12.3	11.7	11.7	90	57	47	57	52	57	55	
Corn, canned	(5)	18.3	16.1	15.2	15.6	16.6	17.1	16.3	16.3	90	57	47	57	52	57	55	
Peas, canned	(5)	19.0	17.8	17.4	17.7	18.3	18.1	17.3	17.3	90	57	47	57	52	57	55	
Tomatoes, canned	(5)	13.7	13.0	12.8	12.9	13.6	12.9	12.1	12.1	90	57	47	57	52	57	55	
Sugar, granulated	Pound	5.4	12.8	6.7	8.1	10.3	8.8	6.6	7.1	137	24	50	91	63	22	31	
Tea	do	54.5	73.6	69.0	68.5	70.4	73.5	75.7	77.0	90	35	27	26	29	35	41	
Coffee	do	29.8	41.3	35.6	36.5	37.8	49.0	51.2	50.8	90	19	22	27	64	72	70	
Prunes	do	27.1	18.9	20.2	18.0	17.2	17.2	16.6	16.6	90	57	47	57	52	57	55	
Raisins	do	32.3	26.1	19.8	16.4	14.8	14.2	14.6	14.6	90	57	47	57	52	57	55	
Bananas	Dozen	46.6	37.8	36.8	38.3	37.3	34.7	34.9	34.9	90	57	47	57	52	57	55	
Oranges	do	67.4	52.8	51.0	49.0	48.9	65.5	55.1	55.1	90	57	47	57	52	57	55	
Weighted food index. ⁶										84.3	44.7	38.1	44.0	43.1	59.3	54.1	

¹ Both pink and red.

² 15-16 ounce can.

8-ounce package.

• 28-ounce package.
• No. 2 can

• No. 2 can.
• Beginning

*Beginning with January, 1921, index numbers showing the trend in the retail cost of food have been composed of the articles shown in Tables 1 and 2, weighted according to the consumption of the average family. From January, 1913, to December, 1920, the index numbers included the following articles: Sirloin steak, round steak, rib roast, chuck roast, plate beef, pork chop, bacon, ham, lard, hens, flour, corn meal, eggs, butter, milk, bread, potatoes, sugar, cheese, rice, coffee, and tea.

Table 3 shows the changes in the retail prices of each of 22 articles of food for which this information has been secured since 1913, as

well as the changes in the amounts of these articles that could be purchased for \$1 in specified years, 1913 to 1925, and in October and November, 1926.

TABLE 3.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED ARTICLES OF FOOD AND AMOUNT PURCHASABLE FOR \$1, IN SPECIFIED YEARS, 1913 TO 1925, AND IN OCTOBER AND NOVEMBER, 1926

Year	Sirloin steak		Round steak		Rib roast		Chuck roast		Plate beef		Pork chops	
	Average retail price	Amt. for \$1										
1913	Cents per lb.	Lbs.										
1913	25.4	3.9	22.3	4.5	19.8	5.1	16.0	6.3	12.1	8.3	21.0	4.8
1920	43.7	2.3	39.5	2.5	33.2	3.0	26.2	3.8	18.3	5.5	42.3	2.4
1921	38.8	2.6	34.4	2.9	29.1	3.4	21.2	4.7	14.3	7.0	34.9	2.9
1922	37.4	2.7	32.3	3.1	27.6	3.6	19.7	5.1	12.8	7.8	33.0	3.0
1923	39.1	2.6	33.5	3.0	28.4	3.5	20.2	5.0	12.9	7.8	30.4	3.3
1924	39.6	2.5	33.8	3.0	28.8	3.5	20.8	4.8	13.2	7.6	30.8	3.2
1925	40.6	2.5	34.7	2.9	29.6	3.4	21.6	4.6	13.8	7.2	36.6	2.7
1926:												
October	41.5	2.4	36.0	2.8	30.6	3.3	22.8	4.4	14.6	6.8	42.6	2.3
November	40.9	2.4	35.5	2.8	30.2	3.3	22.7	4.4	14.7	6.8	38.2	2.6
	Bacon		Ham		Hens		Milk		Butter		Cheese	
1913	Cents per lb.	Lbs.	Cents per lb.	Lbs.	Cents per lb.	Lbs.	Cents per qt.	Qts.	Cents per lb.	Lbs.	Cents per lb.	Lbs.
1913	27.0	3.7	26.9	3.7	21.3	4.7	8.9	11.2	38.3	2.6	22.1	4.5
1920	52.3	1.9	55.5	1.8	44.7	2.2	16.7	6.0	70.1	1.4	41.6	2.4
1921	42.7	2.3	48.8	2.0	39.7	2.5	14.6	6.8	51.7	1.9	34.0	2.9
1922	39.8	2.5	48.8	2.0	36.0	2.8	13.1	7.6	47.9	2.1	32.9	3.0
1923	39.1	2.6	45.5	2.2	35.0	2.9	13.8	7.2	55.4	1.8	36.9	2.7
1924	37.7	2.7	45.3	2.2	35.3	2.8	13.8	7.2	51.7	1.9	35.3	2.8
1925	46.7	2.1	52.6	1.9	36.6	2.7	14.0	7.1	54.8	1.8	36.7	2.7
1926:												
October	51.7	1.9	59.8	1.7	37.6	2.7	14.0	7.1	54.3	1.8	36.7	2.7
November	51.0	2.0	58.4	1.7	37.1	2.7	14.1	7.1	55.7	1.8	36.9	2.7
	Lard		Eggs		Bread		Flour		Corn meal		Rice	
1913	Cents per lb.	Lbs.	Cents per doz.	Doz.	Cents per lb.	Lbs.						
1913	15.8	6.3	34.5	2.9	5.6	17.9	3.3	30.3	3.0	33.3	8.7	11.5
1920	29.5	3.4	68.1	1.5	11.5	8.7	8.1	12.3	6.5	15.4	17.4	5.7
1921	18.0	5.6	50.9	2.0	9.9	10.1	5.8	17.2	4.5	22.2	9.5	10.5
1922	17.0	5.9	44.4	2.3	8.7	11.5	5.1	19.6	3.9	25.6	9.5	10.5
1923	17.7	5.6	46.5	2.2	8.7	11.5	4.7	21.3	4.1	24.4	9.5	10.5
1924	19.0	5.3	47.8	2.1	8.8	11.4	4.9	20.4	4.7	21.3	10.1	9.9
1925	23.3	4.3	52.1	1.9	9.4	10.6	6.1	16.4	5.4	18.5	11.1	9.0
1926:												
October	21.9	4.6	58.2	1.7	9.4	10.6	5.7	17.5	5.1	19.6	11.6	8.6
November	21.1	4.7	66.0	1.5	9.4	10.6	5.7	17.5	5.1	19.6	11.3	8.8
	Potatoes		Sugar		Tea		Coffee		-		-	
1913	Cents per lb.	Lbs.										
1913	1.7	58.8	5.5	18.2	54.4	1.8	29.8	3.4				
1920	6.3	15.9	19.4	5.2	73.3	1.4	47.0	2.1				
1921	3.1	32.3	8.0	12.5	69.7	1.4	36.3	2.8				
1922	2.8	35.7	7.3	13.7	68.1	1.5	36.1	2.8				
1923	2.9	34.5	10.1	9.9	69.5	1.4	37.7	2.7				
1924	2.7	37.0	9.2	10.9	71.5	1.4	43.3	2.3				
1925	3.6	27.8	7.2	13.9	75.5	1.3	51.5	1.9				
1926:												
October	3.8	26.3	7.1	14.1	77.3	1.3	50.9	2.0				
November	4.0	25.0	7.1	14.1	77.0	1.3	50.8	2.0				

Retail Prices of Food in

AVERAGE retail food prices are shown in Table 4 for 40 cities as of November 15, 1926. For 11 other cities prices are shown for the same period as the 40 cities, but the data are not scheduled by the bureau until after 1913.

TABLE 4.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL
[Exact comparisons of prices in different cities can not be made for some articles]

Article	Unit	Atlanta, Ga.				Baltimore, Md.				Birmingham, Ala.			
		Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1926		Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1926		Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1926	
		1913	1925	1926	1926	1913	1925	1926	1926	1913	1925	1926	1926
Sirloin steak	Pound	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.
Round steak	do	24.2	38.0	41.5	41.2	22.8	38.9	38.8	38.0	28.0	39.7	40.7	40.7
Rib roast	do	21.3	34.3	37.6	37.2	21.3	34.9	36.1	35.0	23.0	34.9	35.8	35.3
Chuck roast	do	19.0	28.6	33.3	32.8	17.5	30.1	29.9	29.8	19.4	27.5	27.8	28.2
Plate beef	do	15.8	21.3	25.2	25.3	15.0	21.5	22.0	21.6	16.5	22.6	23.3	23.0
Pork chops	do	25.0	37.0	39.2	38.5	18.2	36.3	39.9	38.8	23.0	37.1	40.3	38.9
Bacon, sliced	do	31.1	48.1	50.0	48.8	21.5	46.3	46.9	45.7	34.0	49.6	50.4	50.8
Ham, sliced	do	30.8	54.7	60.8	60.0	27.5	57.3	60.9	59.9	32.0	53.1	59.3	57.6
Lamb, leg of	do	20.2	37.1	38.6	38.6	18.0	40.4	38.4	37.3	21.9	37.8	37.9	38.8
Hens	do	21.0	33.8	38.5	37.3	20.2	37.3	38.3	38.4	19.3	33.9	37.6	37.8
Salmon, canned, red	do	35.4	33.6	33.5	—	35.6	34.2	31.8	—	—	37.5	36.4	36.2
Milk, fresh	Quart	10.6	19.3	19.0	19.0	8.7	13.0	14.0	14.0	10.0	19.0	18.0	18.0
Milk, evaporated	15-16 oz. can	—	13.6	13.4	13.4	—	11.4	11.2	11.2	—	12.6	12.6	12.5
Butter	Pound	39.8	59.6	56.5	56.8	38.4	63.6	57.9	59.9	41.7	62.2	57.0	58.0
Oleomargarine (all butter substitutes)	do	32.3	32.6	31.0	—	30.1	30.1	30.0	—	—	36.4	36.3	36.2
Cheese	do	25.0	35.6	35.5	36.2	23.3	36.4	34.6	35.4	23.0	37.7	37.1	37.1
Lard	do	15.3	23.0	21.7	20.1	15.0	21.8	20.3	19.6	15.1	23.6	22.5	21.9
Vegetable lard substitute	do	24.7	24.3	22.2	—	24.7	24.2	24.1	—	—	22.0	21.7	21.6
Eggs, strictly fresh	Dozen	40.0	60.0	51.5	58.1	45.9	68.1	54.8	66.3	39.0	61.8	51.8	55.6
Eggs, storage	do	47.5	—	47.7	33.1	45.3	43.3	46.7	32.5	48.6	45.0	46.7	—
Bread	Pound	5.6	10.4	10.7	10.7	5.5	9.4	9.8	9.8	5.4	10.2	10.3	10.3
Flour	do	3.5	6.9	6.6	6.6	3.1	5.6	5.3	5.3	3.6	7.1	6.8	6.8
Corn meal	do	2.6	4.2	4.3	4.2	2.6	4.2	3.9	3.9	2.5	4.3	4.2	4.2
Rolled oats	do	9.5	9.7	9.7	—	8.7	8.3	8.3	—	10.1	10.1	10.1	—
Corn flakes	8-oz. pkg	—	11.4	11.5	11.5	—	10.3	10.1	10.1	—	11.9	12.1	12.0
Wheat cereal	28-oz. pkg	—	25.6	25.6	25.6	—	24.1	24.3	24.5	—	25.7	26.9	26.9
Macaroni	Pound	21.8	21.7	21.7	—	19.3	18.6	18.6	—	—	19.3	18.8	18.7
Rice	do	8.6	10.9	11.9	11.6	9.0	10.6	10.7	10.4	8.2	12.0	11.5	11.3
Beans, navy	do	11.7	10.2	10.2	—	8.7	7.9	8.1	—	—	11.7	10.5	10.5
Potatoes	do	2.3	6.5	4.9	5.0	1.8	5.1	4.1	4.2	2.2	6.1	5.4	5.3
Onions	do	—	7.8	8.0	7.6	—	6.0	4.8	4.8	—	7.9	7.7	7.6
Cabbage	do	—	5.0	4.8	4.9	—	4.3	4.0	4.2	—	5.4	5.4	5.2
Beans, baked	No. 2 can	12.3	11.7	11.5	—	11.2	10.4	10.4	—	—	13.2	12.0	11.8
Corn, canned	do	17.8	17.8	17.8	—	16.0	15.0	14.6	—	—	18.6	18.5	18.3
Peas, canned	do	18.5	20.2	20.0	—	16.0	15.4	15.1	—	—	22.6	21.6	21.0
Tomatoes, canned	do	13.1	10.9	11.0	—	10.7	10.7	10.7	—	—	12.3	11.4	11.2
Sugar, granulated	Pound	5.7	7.0	7.4	7.5	4.8	6.0	6.5	6.5	5.4	7.1	7.5	7.6
Tea	do	60.0	100.8	104.3	106.1	56.0	75.8	74.2	73.8	61.3	92.9	96.3	96.7
Coffee	do	32.0	51.1	51.8	52.2	24.4	48.3	47.6	47.4	28.8	54.0	54.3	54.0
Prunes	do	—	17.5	17.9	17.6	—	15.2	14.2	13.9	—	19.8	19.3	19.3
Raisins	do	—	15.5	18.3	16.8	—	13.1	13.5	13.2	—	15.0	15.7	15.4
Bananas	Dozen	—	28.1	28.2	28.6	—	25.3	26.3	26.7	—	36.9	37.9	38.5
Oranges	do	—	54.0	53.8	41.1	—	59.1	57.8	49.3	—	54.9	52.3	50.5

¹ The steak for which prices are here quoted is called "sirloin" in this city, but in most of the other cities included in this report it would be known as "porterhouse" steak.

51 Cities on Specified Dates

on November 15, 1913 and 1925, and on October 15 and November dates, with the exception of November, 1913, as these cities were not

ARTICLES OF FOOD IN 51 CITIES ON SPECIFIED DATES

cles, particularly meats and vegetables, owing to differences in trade practices]

Boston, Mass.				Bridgeport, Conn.				Buffalo, N. Y.				Butte, Mont.				Charleston, S. C.				
Nov. 15—		Oct. 15,	Nov. 15,	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15,	Nov. 15,	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15,	Nov. 15,	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15,	Nov. 15,	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15,	Nov. 15,	
1913	1925	1926	1926	1925	1926	1926	1926	1913	1925	1926	1926	1913	1925	1926	1913	1925	1926	1913	1926	
Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	
134.0	166.8	165.3	164.7	48.3	48.9	49.2	22.2	38.8	40.9	40.0	28.2	30.8	30.0	21.4	31.8	33.3	32.7			
35.0	51.8	51.7	49.7	41.7	42.4	41.9	19.4	33.3	34.6	33.8	25.8	27.4	26.9	20.8	29.5	30.0	30.0			
23.9	40.9	38.9	37.9	37.0	36.7	36.3	16.4	29.1	30.6	30.4	25.0	26.7	26.8	20.0	26.8	25.7	24.9			
16.2	28.5	28.2	28.5	28.4	27.2	27.6	15.2	22.1	23.7	23.7	17.2	19.2	18.7	15.0	19.7	19.1	19.5			
	19.2	18.4	18.6	11.9	11.7	11.7	11.7	14.2	14.4	14.5	11.9	12.1	12.1	12.0	14.0	14.0	14.2			
22.4	42.9	46.7	41.8	40.3	46.3	41.7	19.8	40.0	45.2	41.7	32.2	42.2	41.2	25.0	34.4	38.8	38.5			
24.6	48.4	48.6	49.2	52.3	55.3	54.9	21.2	45.1	47.0	46.9	56.3	59.3	58.2	26.6	44.6	45.4	45.0			
31.0	59.0	65.6	63.3	57.3	65.4	64.3	26.3	51.2	59.3	56.8	57.5	61.3	61.3	27.5	49.4	56.8	54.8			
	20.5	40.7	39.5	38.6	39.1	38.5	38.8	15.6	34.1	34.0	32.8	37.3	37.7	37.3	22.5	43.6	41.9	41.3		
24.3	39.7	41.5	40.6	40.3	40.6	40.6	20.0	36.2	38.3	37.9	31.8	34.5	33.3	21.5	36.8	39.4	39.8			
	36.9	34.9	33.1	33.4	34.1	33.6	—	38.1	34.5	33.8	30.6	32.5	32.5	—	37.3	30.4	30.0			
8.9	14.8	14.9	15.1	16.0	16.0	16.0	8.0	13.4	13.0	13.0	14.3	14.3	14.3	12.0	18.0	18.0	19.0			
	12.2	12.0	12.1	11.4	11.6	11.6	—	11.4	11.2	11.3	11.0	10.9	11.1	—	11.9	11.9	11.8			
38.2	59.6	53.7	55.3	58.5	54.2	55.3	38.1	60.1	54.9	57.7	60.9	50.7	51.0	37.8	57.9	52.3	52.4			
	29.3	29.9	29.8	29.5	30.1	30.6	—	29.8	29.3	29.8	32.5	—	—	—	31.8	31.2	31.3			
	23.4	39.5	37.6	38.2	39.4	39.5	39.3	21.5	38.3	37.2	37.6	37.4	35.7	35.7	21.0	34.2	33.9	34.9		
	15.8	23.4	21.3	20.8	22.9	21.0	20.3	14.2	22.1	20.9	20.4	25.7	25.3	25.0	15.0	23.7	22.1	21.3		
	25.9	24.7	24.7	25.6	25.7	25.8	—	26.4	26.4	25.9	28.4	29.3	29.3	—	24.5	23.8	23.4			
60.6	91.7	76.7	74.4	92.7	78.9	91.0	48.5	74.7	60.5	69.0	79.9	61.1	67.1	40.0	55.3	56.7	64.3			
	35.2	52.8	52.4	54.6	49.2	50.1	52.2	30.6	45.8	43.8	45.6	48.2	45.0	47.1	33.5	43.9	43.9	43.8		
6.0	9.1	9.1	9.1	9.0	8.8	8.8	5.6	9.0	8.9	8.9	9.7	9.8	9.8	6.4	10.8	10.2	10.2			
6.8	6.6	6.2	6.0	5.9	5.9	5.8	3.0	5.4	5.1	5.1	5.8	5.7	5.6	3.7	7.3	7.0	7.1			
4.2	6.7	6.2	6.2	7.6	8.0	7.9	2.6	5.4	5.2	5.3	6.1	5.9	5.8	2.6	4.1	3.9	3.9			
10.1	9.3	9.3	9.3	8.6	8.4	8.4	—	8.8	8.7	8.7	7.6	7.3	7.3	—	9.4	9.5	9.5			
	11.1	10.7	10.7	10.6	10.4	10.4	—	10.4	10.2	10.2	12.4	12.2	12.2	—	11.7	11.8	11.8			
	25.0	24.5	24.5	24.7	24.9	24.7	—	24.1	24.7	24.6	27.3	28.4	28.4	—	26.4	26.2	26.2			
	23.2	22.3	22.4	22.7	22.7	22.7	—	21.8	21.4	21.7	19.7	19.1	19.2	—	18.8	18.5	18.5			
9.4	12.5	12.2	11.7	11.2	11.4	10.9	9.3	11.5	11.5	11.3	12.3	12.3	12.1	5.6	8.8	9.0	8.3			
	10.9	9.6	9.8	10.6	9.6	9.6	—	9.9	8.8	9.2	10.8	10.4	10.4	—	10.4	9.9	9.9			
1.7	5.2	3.5	3.9	4.9	3.5	3.8	1.8	4.9	3.5	4.1	4.0	3.0	3.0	2.2	5.6	4.1	4.3			
	5.9	5.1	4.9	6.0	5.1	4.7	—	6.6	5.9	5.9	4.7	3.8	4.3	—	6.1	5.5	5.8			
	5.1	5.2	5.4	4.9	4.5	4.3	—	3.2	3.2	3.5	3.5	3.8	3.0	—	4.1	4.3	4.4			
	13.5	13.2	13.0	12.0	11.4	11.4	—	10.3	9.8	9.9	14.9	14.3	14.1	—	10.3	10.0	9.8			
18.3	19.5	18.5	18.8	19.5	19.6	19.5	—	16.5	16.6	16.9	15.6	16.0	16.2	—	16.0	14.9	14.8			
21.0	21.3	19.9	19.8	21.2	21.0	20.9	—	16.4	16.5	16.8	16.0	14.0	14.8	—	18.0	16.7	16.7			
11.2	12.7	12.3	12.8	13.3	13.8	13.4	—	14.2	13.4	13.8	14.8	13.7	13.7	—	10.8	10.0	10.3			
	5.4	6.6	7.0	7.1	6.4	6.8	6.8	5.3	6.2	6.9	7.0	7.7	8.4	8.4	5.0	6.2	6.8	6.7		
96.7	75.8	74.7	74.9	61.1	59.9	59.5	45.0	68.2	70.1	70.5	82.5	83.3	83.8	50.0	75.8	74.9	74.9			
54.0	56.0	55.3	55.1	48.4	48.6	48.5	29.3	49.1	49.1	48.5	56.4	57.0	56.6	26.8	46.2	47.3	46.5			
19.3	16.8	16.1	15.3	16.9	16.1	16.0	—	16.2	16.5	16.4	17.5	19.0	17.9	—	15.9	15.3	14.9			
	13.9	13.9	13.9	13.9	14.8	14.6	—	13.3	14.3	14.1	14.8	15.2	15.2	—	13.9	14.8	14.7			
	41.4	44.4	45.0	34.0	35.0	34.5	—	42.1	42.4	42.3	13.2	13.2	14.5	—	38.3	37.8	31.7			
	77.5	62.1	62.3	69.9	66.7	61.6	—	76.1	56.6	62.8	65.8	48.3	56.2	—	43.0	44.5	38.2			

* Per pound.

TABLE 4.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL

Article	Unit	Chicago, Ill.			Cincinnati, Ohio			Cleveland, Ohio			
		Nov. 15—		Nov. 15, 1926	Nov. 15—		Nov. 15, 1926	Nov. 15—		Nov. 15, 1926	
		1913	1925		1913	1925		1913	1925		
Sirloin steak	Pound	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	
Round steak	do	24.7	44.8	45.6	45.4	22.7	35.4	37.7	36.5	25.0	36.2
Rib roast	do	21.4	35.3	37.6	37.1	20.7	31.7	34.1	33.1	22.4	30.1
Chuck roast	do	19.5	34.3	36.6	36.6	19.2	28.2	30.8	30.7	18.6	26.1
Plate beef	do	15.9	24.3	26.0	25.8	16.1	19.6	22.1	21.6	17.0	21.3
Pork chops	do	12.0	14.4	15.0	15.0	11.5	15.2	15.4	15.2	12.6	13.1
Bacon, sliced	do	19.3	35.5	43.0	38.3	19.8	33.2	42.1	34.7	21.6	36.9
Ham, sliced	do	32.4	52.8	56.3	55.7	24.6	43.3	46.7	45.5	28.1	50.4
Lamb, leg of	do	32.3	53.6	60.1	59.7	28.5	53.6	60.0	58.0	35.7	54.2
Hens	do	19.3	38.6	39.7	38.8	17.5	35.9	37.5	35.2	18.1	36.1
Salmon, canned, red	do	17.4	34.5	37.5	36.4	20.2	32.2	37.2	35.8	19.9	36.3
Milk, fresh	Quart	do	37.9	38.6	38.1	36.0	31.3	31.1	35.6	34.5	33.9
Milk, evaporated	15-16-oz. can	do	8.0	14.0	14.0	8.0	12.0	14.0	14.0	8.0	13.8
Butter	Pound	do	10.9	11.3	11.2	10.8	10.9	10.8	11.3	11.3	11.3
Oleomargarine (all butter substitutes)	do	36.5	57.6	53.7	56.3	38.2	57.5	53.0	55.1	40.7	61.7
Cheese	do	29.4	27.5	27.6	32.3	30.2	30.2	30.2	33.2	33.0	33.2
Lard	do	25.3	42.2	42.4	42.4	21.0	36.1	36.4	36.3	24.0	37.8
Vegetable lard substitute	do	15.0	23.1	22.2	21.5	14.2	21.6	20.0	19.4	16.3	24.1
Eggs, strictly fresh	Dozen	do	39.8	67.9	57.0	65.1	44.3	69.1	52.1	65.6	50.0
Eggs, storage	do	30.3	45.5	47.0	50.5	33.6	45.8	39.3	44.0	35.7	50.7
Bread	Pound	do	39.8	67.9	57.0	65.1	44.3	69.1	52.1	65.6	50.0
Flour	do	2.9	5.4	5.4	5.4	3.3	5.9	6.0	5.8	3.2	5.9
Corn meal	do	2.9	6.5	6.5	6.6	2.8	4.3	3.9	3.9	3.0	5.5
Rolled oats	do	8.5	8.6	8.6	8.6	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.7	9.5	9.5
Corn flakes	8-oz. pkg	do	10.1	10.1	10.1	10.1	10.2	10.4	10.4	11.2	11.2
Wheat cereal	28-oz. pkg	do	24.6	25.2	25.3	24.3	24.4	24.5	24.5	25.0	25.3
Macaroni	Pound	do	20.0	19.7	19.4	20.2	18.5	18.4	18.4	21.5	22.0
Rice	do	9.0	11.4	12.1	11.9	8.8	11.1	11.4	10.9	9.0	11.7
Beans, navy	do	9.7	9.5	9.5	9.5	8.3	7.8	7.9	7.9	8.8	7.8
Potatoes	do	1.7	5.0	3.7	3.8	1.9	5.4	4.2	4.0	2.0	4.3
Onions	do	5.7	5.3	5.3	5.3	5.4	4.6	4.5	4.5	5.1	4.9
Cabbage	do	4.3	4.5	4.6	4.6	4.2	4.1	3.9	3.9	4.1	4.5
Beans, baked	No. 2 can	do	12.8	12.8	12.9	12.8	11.3	11.0	10.9	13.0	12.6
Corn, canned	do	16.8	17.1	17.4	17.4	15.7	15.2	15.1	18.2	16.9	17.0
Peas, canned	do	17.6	17.5	17.7	17.7	17.9	17.5	16.8	17.8	17.5	17.8
Tomatoes, canned	do	14.4	13.9	14.1	14.1	13.1	11.8	11.9	14.2	13.8	13.8
Sugar, granulated	Pound	do	5.1	6.3	6.9	6.9	5.3	6.8	7.2	7.3	5.4
Tea	do	55.0	74.1	74.5	74.8	60.0	76.7	78.1	77.4	50.0	79.0
Coffee	do	30.7	51.8	50.8	51.0	25.6	45.7	46.1	45.9	26.5	53.6
Prunes	do	18.4	18.8	18.7	18.7	17.7	17.2	16.4	16.4	17.4	16.7
Raisins	do	15.2	15.4	15.6	15.6	14.2	15.3	15.1	15.1	14.0	14.8
Bananas	Dozen	do	41.3	40.5	40.5	40.5	37.5	36.7	37.5	47.5	50.0
Oranges	do	74.0	61.3	61.3	61.3	57.8	56.4	55.0	55.0	74.4	63.6

¹ The steak for which prices are here quoted is called "rump" in this city, but in most of the other cities included in this report it would be known as "porterhouse" steak.

ARTICLES OF FOOD IN 51 CITIES ON SPECIFIED DATES—Continued

Columbus, Ohio			Dallas, Tex.			Denver, Colo.			Detroit, Mich.			Fall River, Mass.		
Nov. 15, 1925	Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1926	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1926	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1926	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1926
			1913	1925			1913	1925			1913	1925		
Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.
37.3	40.6	39.7	23.6	33.3	36.2	36.2	22.9	30.0	33.6	33.0	25.6	39.5	42.0	41.6 ¹
32.7	35.9	34.8	21.0	29.9	32.9	32.9	20.3	26.3	30.2	29.7	20.6	32.2	34.5	34.3 ¹
29.1	30.9	29.9	20.1	27.5	27.8	26.6	16.7	21.7	24.0	23.1	20.0	29.5	30.1	30.7 ¹
22.5	24.8	25.0	16.4	21.4	23.1	22.7	15.3	17.1	19.5	19.0	15.2	22.2	22.9	22.5
15.3	15.4	16.0	15.0	15.4	17.8	17.3	9.9	10.6	11.1	11.1	11.4	13.5	14.3	14.5
34.1	39.7	37.4	21.8	35.2	38.3	37.2	20.4	36.1	40.6	37.7	19.4	38.5	45.7	41.0 ¹
49.6	53.3	52.3	37.5	46.5	46.1	46.4	28.0	50.2	53.3	52.0	22.3	50.6	54.7	54.3 ¹
52.7	58.8	59.5	31.6	56.3	62.8	59.3	29.2	55.7	60.8	59.9	27.0	57.2	64.6	63.5 ¹
42.2	41.7	42.4	22.5	43.9	43.6	43.4	15.2	35.3	35.8	35.5	15.1	40.0	39.9	38.9
36.4	37.7	37.7	18.4	29.3	32.3	31.6	18.5	28.1	29.8	31.3	19.2	36.8	39.2	37.2
39.3	36.8	36.3	—	40.3	39.0	37.6	—	38.6	34.5	34.7	—	38.7	35.7	35.5
11.0	12.0	12.0	10.8	15.0	12.0	13.0	8.4	12.0	12.0	9.0	14.0	14.0	9.0	14.0 ¹
11.4	11.4	11.4	—	13.3	13.0	13.0	—	11.2	10.7	10.6	—	11.1	11.2	11.2
58.4	53.6	56.7	40.0	58.1	53.0	55.7	35.0	57.6	49.0	49.1	37.1	59.0	54.9	56.8 ¹
31.2	29.9	29.9	—	33.8	33.9	32.5	—	30.1	29.0	28.5	—	30.5	28.9	29.2
37.7	35.9	36.8	20.0	37.0	36.1	36.8	26.1	30.1	37.4	37.5	22.3	37.2	38.1	38.8 ¹
21.4	19.6	19.6	16.8	25.9	25.6	24.9	16.0	24.1	22.6	21.8	16.4	23.9	22.1	21.1 ¹
25.9	26.2	26.5	—	24.0	24.0	22.8	—	24.7	24.3	23.7	—	27.0	27.1	27.4
63.3	49.2	61.7	40.0	55.9	48.0	54.8	45.0	64.0	55.6	63.9	41.0	68.1	56.9	66.1 ¹
46.0	40.3	47.3	35.0	45.5	—	44.0	33.0	44.8	43.9	45.7	32.2	46.7	43.4	46.6 ¹
8.1	8.1	8.1	5.3	8.6	9.5	9.5	5.5	8.4	8.3	8.3	5.6	8.7	8.2	8.5 ¹
6.1	5.5	5.5	3.3	5.8	5.7	5.6	2.5	5.1	4.5	4.5	3.1	5.8	5.6	5.6 ¹
4.0	3.6	3.6	3.6	5.0	4.4	4.2	2.6	4.4	4.0	4.2	2.9	5.6	5.9	5.9 ¹
9.5	9.3	9.3	—	10.4	10.2	10.1	—	8.8	8.3	8.0	—	9.6	9.3	9.4 ¹
10.8	10.8	10.9	—	10.9	11.1	11.3	—	12.0	11.1	11.1	—	10.6	10.6	10.6
24.3	24.5	24.7	—	26.4	27.6	27.6	—	25.0	24.9	24.7	—	25.5	25.8	26.0
23.7	20.1	20.3	—	21.5	21.6	21.4	—	19.2	19.7	19.8	—	21.7	22.4	21.9
12.6	13.8	13.3	9.3	12.4	12.5	12.4	8.6	11.4	10.6	10.5	8.4	11.9	13.4	12.6 ¹
8.8	7.7	8.3	—	11.8	10.1	10.7	—	10.7	9.6	9.7	—	8.9	8.6	8.5
5.1	3.9	4.0	2.3	6.1	5.3	5.2	1.6	4.7	3.3	3.7	1.7	4.4	3.2	3.3 ¹
5.9	4.8	4.9	—	7.2	6.5	6.8	—	4.9	3.7	3.6	—	5.4	4.6	4.6
4.3	4.5	4.1	—	5.4	5.4	5.7	—	3.2	2.4	2.4	—	3.5	3.9	3.6
13.1	12.1	12.0	—	14.5	13.3	13.5	—	13.7	11.4	11.2	—	11.8	11.6	11.6
15.6	14.4	14.4	—	18.3	17.8	18.0	—	16.3	14.8	14.7	—	16.9	16.6	16.2
16.2	15.1	15.1	—	21.1	21.9	21.7	—	16.8	15.8	15.6	—	17.3	17.2	16.7
14.4	12.5	12.2	—	13.3	12.5	12.5	—	14.2	12.1	12.5	—	13.5	12.4	12.5
7.0	7.2	7.4	5.6	7.1	6.8	7.7	5.1	6.3	7.6	7.6	5.2	6.8	7.3	7.3 ¹
84.8	89.3	89.3	66.7	102.7	104.7	106.8	52.8	67.6	69.3	68.9	43.3	73.1	75.3	74.5 ¹
51.6	51.6	51.3	36.7	59.3	60.3	59.8	29.4	52.4	51.0	50.9	29.3	51.9	52.0	51.5 ¹
17.4	18.5	18.0	—	22.1	21.5	21.4	—	19.1	18.3	17.8	—	18.5	19.2	18.3
14.6	15.0	14.7	—	16.0	16.7	16.1	—	14.7	14.5	14.5	—	14.5	15.4	15.0
38.0	38.9	38.9	—	33.8	36.3	36.3	—	11.3	11.5	11.9	—	33.8	34.8	35.6
63.9	54.8	52.7	—	68.5	57.5	54.3	—	63.6	50.0	54.8	—	70.6	58.0	60.5

¹ Per pound.

TABLE 4.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL

Article	Unit	Houston, Tex.			Indianapolis, Ind.			Jacksonville, Fla.			
		Nov. 15, 1925	Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1926	Nov. 15—	Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1926	Nov. 15—	Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1926	
					1913			1913			
Sirloin steak	Pound	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	
Round steak	do	30.4	33.8	34.1	26.0	36.8	39.3	38.4	25.6	35.9	37.5
Rib roast	do	29.6	32.7	32.7	24.7	34.8	38.2	37.0	21.2	30.5	32.3
Chuck roast	do	23.5	26.8	27.1	17.8	28.1	29.4	29.0	21.6	26.6	28.6
Plate beef	do	19.0	20.5	20.5	16.3	23.7	24.7	24.3	14.4	20.2	20.6
Pork chops	do	15.8	17.3	17.3	12.9	14.7	15.3	15.5	11.2	12.4	12.5
Bacon, sliced	do	37.1	39.3	38.6	21.5	35.7	42.9	37.4	24.0	35.5	39.0
Ham, sliced	do	49.7	52.1	51.5	29.2	45.7	49.0	47.9	30.9	47.4	50.0
Lamb, leg of	do	51.7	57.1	57.1	30.3	54.2	61.4	58.6	30.2	53.6	59.5
Hens	do	36.0	35.0	35.0	19.0	40.8	41.7	40.0	21.6	39.5	39.5
Salmon, canned, red	do	35.3	39.9	36.1	19.8	34.7	38.7	38.2	24.6	38.8	41.0
Milk, fresh	Quart	34.8	34.1	33.1	—	31.4	35.8	34.6	—	37.3	38.0
Milk, evaporated	15-16 oz. can	17.3	15.6	15.8	8.0	11.8	12.0	12.0	12.3	22.0	22.3
Butter	Pound	11.6	11.5	11.5	—	10.6	10.8	10.8	—	12.3	12.1
Oleomargarine (all butter substitutes).	do	58.1	54.4	55.2	37.5	57.1	54.1	57.2	39.0	59.8	55.0
Cheese	do	31.4	29.9	30.0	—	32.4	30.4	30.4	—	31.7	32.4
Lard	do	34.5	33.2	33.9	21.3	37.0	35.9	36.5	22.5	35.1	35.2
Vegetable lard substitute	do	24.2	22.3	22.3	15.0	21.4	19.8	19.1	15.7	24.3	22.9
Eggs, strictly fresh	Dozen	17.5	19.0	17.6	—	26.9	26.8	26.8	—	24.5	24.4
Eggs, storage	do	54.7	47.4	51.3	43.5	64.5	48.1	60.8	45.0	72.1	71.0
Bread	Pound	41.3	40.7	40.6	35.8	45.7	40.0	42.5	40.0	49.3	49.3
Flour	do	8.9	8.8	8.8	5.1	8.1	8.1	8.1	6.2	11.0	11.0
Corn meal	do	6.0	5.7	5.6	3.2	5.8	5.6	5.5	3.7	6.6	6.9
Rolled oats	do	4.9	4.1	4.1	2.6	4.4	4.2	4.2	2.9	4.3	4.2
Corn flakes	do	9.2	8.9	8.9	—	8.1	8.1	8.3	—	9.9	9.6
Wheat cereal	8-oz. pkg	9.2	11.8	11.4	—	10.1	10.1	10.1	—	11.6	11.2
Macaroni	28-oz. pkg	25.5	25.6	25.6	—	24.8	25.3	25.1	—	25.0	24.9
Rice	Pound	19.2	18.4	18.3	—	20.6	19.2	19.2	—	20.9	20.2
Beans, navy	do	9.8	9.8	9.5	9.2	11.6	12.1	11.8	6.8	10.6	10.8
Potatoes	do	10.7	9.2	9.4	—	8.8	8.1	8.2	—	11.0	9.9
Onions	do	6.2	4.9	5.0	1.7	4.9	3.8	4.0	2.5	6.7	4.9
Cabbage	do	6.3	5.4	5.4	—	6.1	5.1	4.9	—	8.0	7.3
Beans, baked	No. 2 can	5.2	4.8	5.1	—	4.1	4.0	3.9	—	6.3	5.5
Corn, canned	do	12.5	11.1	10.6	—	11.8	10.4	10.6	—	11.3	11.4
Peas, canned	do	17.0	14.9	15.0	—	15.7	14.4	14.4	—	19.2	20.0
Tomatoes, canned	do	17.5	14.0	14.0	—	16.7	14.6	14.8	—	19.7	19.8
Sugar, granulated	Pound	11.4	11.0	11.3	—	14.2	11.7	11.7	—	11.2	11.2
Tea	do	12.5	11.1	10.6	—	11.8	10.4	10.6	—	11.3	11.4
Coffee	do	74.2	82.8	82.7	60.0	79.2	87.8	85.3	60.0	95.7	100.9
Prunes	do	45.6	45.1	44.8	30.0	51.4	51.1	51.1	34.5	50.8	50.3
Raisins	do	16.8	16.8	17.3	—	19.8	19.3	18.4	—	17.9	18.7
Bananas	Dozen	56.1	46.0	48.2	—	58.8	52.7	51.3	—	53.9	43.8
Oranges	do	14.3	14.4	14.2	—	15.0	15.9	15.6	—	15.8	16.1

¹ The steak for which prices are here quoted is called "sirloin" in this city, but in most of the other cities included in this report it would be known as "porterhouse" steak.

RETAIL PRICES OF FOOD

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ARTICLES OF FOOD IN 51 CITIES ON SPECIFIED DATES—Continued

Kansas City, Mo.			Little Rock, Ark.			Los Angeles, Calif.			Louisville, Ky.			Manchester, N. H.			
Nov. 15— 1913	Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1926	Nov. 15— 1913	Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1926	Nov. 15— 1913	Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1926	Nov. 15— 1913	Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1926	Nov. 15— 1913	Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1926	
Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	
24.6	38.1	39.2	37.8	25.0	32.5	34.2	34.7	23.9	35.5	36.3	36.5	23.0	32.5	36.3	35.9
22.3	31.4	34.1	33.2	20.0	29.5	31.6	31.7	21.4	29.3	29.7	29.7	20.0	28.3	32.4	32.3
18.1	26.0	27.2	27.1	20.0	26.1	27.3	27.5	18.9	28.4	29.6	29.7	18.1	24.4	26.6	26.6
15.6	19.4	20.0	19.5	16.3	19.2	22.5	22.3	16.0	19.1	20.2	19.9	15.5	18.8	19.8	20.4
12.2	12.6	13.0	13.1	13.0	15.2	15.9	16.4	13.4	13.7	14.0	14.0	13.1	14.8	15.8	16.4
20.8	35.4	42.6	36.4	21.0	34.0	37.7	37.5	26.0	43.7	46.7	45.1	19.6	33.6	39.1	35.4
30.9	51.3	52.7	50.9	36.7	48.8	53.0	53.5	33.5	58.2	60.7	59.7	28.6	47.1	52.2	52.2
28.8	55.7	61.2	58.1	27.5	50.7	58.5	57.1	35.0	67.3	71.4	70.3	29.0	46.3	55.7	55.8
18.3	33.6	34.8	33.8	18.8	40.0	40.1	39.9	18.6	37.8	36.2	36.8	18.2	38.8	39.3	40.8
15.8	30.9	33.6	32.1	18.8	30.8	30.7	29.8	26.3	42.4	44.3	43.8	23.0	37.1	36.9	45.6
9.1	13.0	13.0	13.0	10.5	15.3	15.0	15.0	10.0	15.0	15.0	15.0	8.6	14.0	12.0	13.0
11.8	11.8	11.6	12.4	11.9	11.8	10.2	10.2	10.2	10.1	10.1	11.9	11.7	11.7	11.7	11.7
39.1	56.8	52.3	51.6	45.0	58.8	53.3	55.1	39.7	65.2	54.6	55.0	40.0	59.8	55.9	57.9
27.6	27.6	27.5	29.4	30.1	30.1	33.7	31.5	31.5	33.7	30.7	33.0	31.3	30.4	32.0	26.3
22.0	36.9	35.9	35.7	23.3	37.6	36.3	37.6	19.5	39.7	39.3	39.1	22.5	37.5	37.1	36.6
16.4	23.3	22.3	20.3	16.5	24.4	23.8	23.3	18.1	24.9	23.9	22.8	15.8	22.6	21.0	19.3
27.5	27.8	27.8	23.3	24.0	23.1	25.6	25.6	26.0	28.2	28.2	30.8	30.9	26.0	26.3	25.6
35.3	60.9	47.3	57.1	37.5	55.7	45.7	55.4	58.8	63.9	62.8	59.4	41.3	71.1	49.4	59.4
32.5	42.3	42.0	43.6	—	51.3	40.0	44.3	37.0	50.4	49.4	48.5	35.0	47.0	41.0	40.0
6.0	9.8	9.8	9.8	6.0	8.8	9.5	9.5	6.0	9.3	8.6	8.5	5.7	9.3	9.3	8.6
3.0	5.9	5.4	5.4	3.6	6.6	6.3	6.4	3.5	5.6	5.4	5.4	3.5	6.5	6.0	6.2
2.9	5.5	4.8	4.7	2.8	4.3	4.1	4.1	3.4	5.4	5.5	5.4	2.4	4.1	3.8	3.4
9.2	9.4	9.1	—	10.2	10.6	10.6	—	9.9	10.2	10.2	—	8.4	8.5	8.4	8.8
12.4	11.2	11.2	—	12.3	11.9	11.9	—	10.1	10.1	10.1	—	10.7	10.8	10.7	11.4
26.5	26.7	26.4	—	24.6	25.7	26.0	—	24.7	25.1	25.1	—	24.2	26.1	26.0	25.0
21.1	20.2	20.3	—	20.8	20.3	20.2	—	17.5	18.1	18.1	—	18.4	18.6	18.5	24.5
8.7	10.4	10.4	8.3	9.9	9.8	9.5	7.7	11.1	11.0	11.7	8.7	11.6	11.5	11.2	8.8
9.8	9.2	9.1	—	9.8	9.7	9.3	—	9.7	9.0	9.2	—	8.3	7.4	8.0	9.3
2.0	5.1	3.7	3.9	2.4	5.8	4.6	4.7	1.9	5.5	3.8	4.3	2.1	5.5	3.9	1.6
6.9	5.3	5.4	—	7.0	5.9	5.9	—	5.8	4.7	4.7	—	5.5	5.8	5.6	4.9
4.4	3.7	3.7	—	4.8	4.5	4.5	—	5.0	3.9	4.0	—	5.5	4.5	4.1	3.3
13.6	12.7	12.5	—	11.9	11.0	11.2	—	11.6	11.4	11.7	—	11.1	10.2	9.8	14.2
16.1	15.0	14.4	—	17.4	16.5	16.5	—	17.0	16.5	16.0	—	18.0	15.6	15.0	18.5
16.4	15.7	14.9	—	18.9	18.7	17.5	—	18.4	17.6	17.6	—	17.5	16.3	16.2	20.2
13.0	12.3	11.7	—	12.9	10.8	11.8	—	15.8	15.0	15.3	—	12.1	10.7	10.9	13.8
5.7	6.8	7.3	7.3	5.3	7.4	7.9	7.7	5.3	6.3	6.8	6.9	5.3	6.9	7.4	7.5
54.0	79.3	86.7	86.5	50.0	100.8	106.3	107.1	54.5	76.5	75.5	75.6	65.0	76.3	86.9	89.4
27.8	53.3	53.8	53.3	30.8	56.1	53.6	54.5	36.3	53.9	53.7	53.6	27.5	51.8	51.3	50.8
18.0	18.2	17.5	—	17.7	18.7	18.1	—	16.1	16.5	16.3	—	18.9	16.7	15.5	16.1
15.4	15.1	15.2	—	16.1	15.6	16.0	—	12.2	13.1	13.1	—	14.5	15.7	14.8	14.3
10.5	10.9	11.3	—	9.4	9.8	10.0	—	9.4	10.1	10.3	—	37.0	35.0	35.0	8.5
69.0	54.1	55.3	—	60.7	60.7	51.6	—	56.3	45.4	48.5	—	60.9	51.0	45.4	63.6

* No. 2½ can.

² Per pound.

TABLE 4.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL

Article	Unit	Memphis, Tenn.				Milwaukee, Wis.				Minneapolis, Minn.			
		Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 1926	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 1926	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 1926
		1913	1925			1913	1925			1913	1925		
Sirloin steak	Pound	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.
Round steak	do	24.0	34.4	36.3	36.3	23.6	36.9	39.3	38.2	20.0	30.5	30.7	30.8
Rib roast	do	20.0	31.7	32.9	33.3	21.6	31.0	34.9	33.7	18.7	27.4	29.0	27.7
Chuck roast	do	21.0	25.4	27.3	26.5	18.4	26.4	28.1	27.8	17.7	24.1	25.6	24.8
Plate beef	do	15.0	19.0	20.2	20.2	16.2	23.0	24.7	24.3	15.3	18.7	20.8	20.0
Pork chops	do	12.5	14.8	16.3	15.6	12.1	13.8	14.6	14.6	10.1	11.1	12.4	12.3
Bacon, sliced	do	20.5	33.8	38.2	35.4	19.6	34.0	41.3	35.5	18.0	33.7	39.4	34.3
Ham, sliced	do	30.0	45.4	44.6	44.3	27.8	47.3	52.4	51.2	27.7	50.0	52.5	50.2
Lamb, leg of	do	29.0	51.3	57.9	57.5	28.2	49.3	54.7	53.3	30.0	51.3	57.5	52.9
Hens	do	20.6	37.3	40.7	38.8	19.0	37.7	38.5	36.9	14.6	34.0	35.2	34.1
Salmon, canned, red	do	19.5	31.8	31.6	32.2	17.2	30.2	33.5	30.8	16.4	30.3	31.1	30.7
Milk, fresh	Quart	32.3	34.0	34.3	34.3	31.6	33.8	34.2	34.2	36.3	39.7	38.6	38.6
Milk, evaporated	15-16 oz. can	10.0	15.3	15.0	15.0	7.0	10.0	11.0	11.0	8.0	12.0	11.0	11.0
Butter	Pound	38.8	56.5	52.1	53.5	36.6	56.9	52.8	55.7	36.3	55.7	52.4	54.8
Oleomargarine (all butter substitutes)	do	26.0	25.4	26.4	26.4	29.7	27.5	27.5	27.5	28.8	28.1	27.7	27.7
Cheese	do	22.0	34.2	33.9	33.7	22.3	35.0	35.1	35.3	21.3	36.5	35.1	35.2
Lard	do	15.6	20.8	18.8	18.1	16.0	23.6	22.0	20.8	15.6	22.8	20.5	19.8
Vegetable lard substitute	do	24.2	22.2	21.8	21.8	26.8	26.8	26.8	26.9	27.4	27.2	27.4	27.4
Eggs, strictly fresh	Dozen	38.0	53.7	46.8	51.4	45.0	62.6	53.2	65.9	41.6	52.9	47.1	53.3
Eggs, storage	do	30.0	43.3	42.7	33.0	43.4	41.6	42.6	31.6	44.6	41.0	42.2	42.2
Bread	Pound	6.0	9.7	9.6	9.6	5.7	9.0	9.0	9.0	5.6	9.9	8.9	8.9
Flour	do	3.5	6.8	6.2	6.2	3.1	5.3	5.3	5.2	2.8	5.5	5.5	5.4
Corn meal	do	2.5	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.3	5.5	5.5	5.5	2.5	5.3	5.3	5.2
Rolled oats	do	9.5	9.1	9.1	9.1	8.6	8.5	8.4	8.4	8.3	8.4	8.4	8.4
Corn flakes	8-oz. pkg	11.1	10.9	10.9	10.9	10.5	10.3	10.2	10.2	10.8	10.7	10.8	10.8
Wheat cereal	28-oz. pkg	26.0	25.6	25.5	25.5	24.3	24.5	24.6	24.6	25.8	25.6	25.3	25.3
Macaroni	Pound	19.6	19.2	19.3	19.3	18.7	18.0	17.8	17.8	18.9	18.9	18.9	18.9
Rice	do	8.1	10.3	10.3	9.7	9.0	11.6	11.8	11.5	8.6	11.6	11.7	11.5
Beans, navy	do	9.5	9.3	9.4	9.4	9.2	8.3	8.4	8.4	9.3	9.0	9.1	9.1
Potatoes	do	2.0	5.6	4.5	4.6	1.7	4.1	3.4	3.5	1.6	4.3	3.2	3.2
Onions	do	5.3	4.8	4.9	4.9	4.7	4.6	4.7	4.7	5.1	4.6	4.8	4.8
Cabbage	do	3.9	3.7	3.6	3.6	3.9	3.1	3.4	3.4	4.0	3.2	3.2	3.2
Beans, baked	No. 2 can	12.1	11.9	11.6	11.6	11.4	11.0	11.3	11.3	13.1	12.3	12.4	12.4
Corn, canned	do	16.6	15.6	15.3	15.3	16.9	15.6	15.6	15.6	16.4	14.6	14.1	14.1
Peas, canned	do	18.4	17.1	17.0	17.0	16.8	16.3	16.2	16.2	16.0	14.8	14.3	14.3
Tomatoes, canned	do	12.0	10.4	10.4	10.4	14.4	13.4	13.4	13.4	14.6	13.5	13.5	13.5
Sugar, granulated	Pound	5.1	6.8	7.0	7.0	5.3	6.1	6.9	6.9	5.1	6.4	7.2	7.2
Tea	do	63.8	96.4	99.0	99.0	50.0	71.9	70.8	70.8	45.0	62.1	60.6	61.1
Coffee	do	27.5	50.4	50.2	50.1	27.5	47.4	46.0	46.8	30.8	54.1	53.9	53.7
Prunes	do	17.3	17.3	16.6	16.6	17.3	16.9	16.4	16.4	17.0	17.0	16.9	16.9
Raisins	do	14.6	15.4	15.0	15.0	14.4	14.7	14.8	14.8	14.2	14.9	14.3	14.3
Bananas	Dozen	30.0	30.0	31.3	31.3	29.2	29.8	29.6	29.6	20.5	21.3	21.9	21.9
Oranges	do	61.2	51.6	46.5	46.5	70.2	54.2	55.8	55.8	71.4	56.2	58.5	58.5

¹ Whole.

ARTICLES OF FOOD IN 51 CITIES ON SPECIFIED DATES—Continued

Mobile, Ala.			Newark, N. J.			New Haven, Conn.			New Orleans, La.			New York, N. Y.			
Nov. 15, 1925	Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1926	Nov. 15—		Nov. 15, 1926	Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1926	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1926	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1926
			1913	1925				1913	1925			1913	1925		
Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.
32.9	34.1	34.5	27.4	45.8	46.2	44.5	32.2	54.6	54.2	54.0	21.5	33.0	35.8	35.6	25.9
31.7	33.6	33.6	27.3	42.1	43.3	42.5	29.6	44.5	43.7	43.7	19.0	29.1	31.5	31.1	25.4
26.4	28.6	28.6	21.3	35.9	35.6	35.2	23.8	35.9	35.8	35.5	18.0	29.0	30.1	30.4	21.3
20.4	22.5	23.2	17.8	25.0	24.5	24.9	19.6	26.7	26.9	26.8	14.9	19.7	20.7	21.5	16.0
16.0	17.1	17.5	12.4	13.8	13.1	12.8	—	16.0	15.8	15.8	11.9	17.5	17.5	18.1	14.5
40.4	41.4	41.4	23.7	37.2	42.2	38.5	23.0	39.4	46.8	39.5	24.5	36.6	39.9	36.9	22.6
44.8	51.9	51.5	25.3	45.2	48.9	47.8	28.8	50.4	51.7	51.1	30.5	46.5	51.4	50.4	25.6
50.7	56.5	54.2	19.8	53.2	56.9	56.9	32.4	57.5	63.8	62.9	26.0	49.6	54.0	53.7	27.8
39.4	41.7	40.0	19.7	38.2	38.7	38.1	19.8	39.5	39.9	38.8	20.5	38.7	39.1	39.0	15.1
36.4	37.7	36.8	22.0	37.7	38.1	38.0	23.8	42.2	42.3	42.2	20.5	35.0	37.1	36.5	21.1
36.9	39.3	34.5	—	35.1	34.7	33.3	—	33.9	33.7	33.5	—	37.7	38.7	38.7	—
17.8	17.8	9.0	15.0	15.0	9.0	16.0	16.0	16.0	9.8	14.0	14.0	9.0	9.0	15.0	15.0
12.1	11.7	11.8	—	11.2	11.2	11.1	—	12.2	12.0	12.1	—	11.0	11.0	11.0	—
60.6	56.3	56.8	42.7	61.1	56.2	58.0	36.3	58.8	53.9	54.7	38.1	58.8	53.6	54.9	39.9
30.8	30.8	30.8	—	31.3	30.3	30.4	—	33.2	31.8	31.7	—	32.0	30.7	30.7	—
37.2	36.9	37.9	24.8	39.8	39.5	39.4	23.5	38.9	38.4	38.4	21.9	35.8	36.0	36.1	20.2
23.2	21.3	20.8	16.3	23.4	22.1	21.9	15.7	23.8	21.7	20.9	15.0	22.6	21.4	20.5	16.2
21.1	21.2	20.6	—	26.3	25.7	25.9	—	25.8	25.5	26.0	—	22.5	20.8	20.3	—
59.2	60.0	61.3	67.0	81.6	70.8	76.7	59.7	92.2	77.2	86.5	41.3	54.9	50.2	52.5	56.1
47.9	49.3	48.1	36.8	47.6	47.3	48.0	33.0	49.6	51.0	52.3	30.0	43.3	41.2	42.0	37.3
9.6	9.6	9.7	5.6	9.2	9.3	9.5	6.0	8.9	9.2	9.2	4.8	8.9	8.9	8.8	6.0
6.6	6.4	6.4	3.6	5.9	5.8	5.6	3.2	5.8	5.7	5.8	3.7	7.4	7.0	7.0	3.2
4.0	3.9	3.9	3.6	6.6	6.6	6.6	3.2	6.7	6.7	6.7	2.8	4.4	3.9	4.0	3.5
8.8	8.7	8.6	—	8.3	8.4	8.4	—	9.2	9.3	9.3	—	9.1	8.9	9.0	—
11.3	11.1	11.1	—	10.1	10.0	10.0	—	10.9	10.7	10.8	—	10.5	10.3	10.3	—
24.8	25.0	25.0	—	24.0	24.3	24.3	—	24.9	24.6	24.7	—	24.4	24.4	24.4	—
20.8	20.6	20.6	—	21.1	21.0	21.0	—	23.0	22.0	22.3	—	9.6	10.0	10.0	—
10.6	11.3	10.7	9.0	10.7	11.1	10.9	9.3	12.1	11.9	11.6	7.5	9.9	9.8	9.5	8.0
9.5	9.0	8.8	—	10.0	9.6	9.8	—	10.1	9.6	9.6	—	9.0	8.3	8.4	—
6.5	4.9	5.1	2.7	5.4	4.2	4.6	1.8	5.3	3.5	4.0	2.2	5.9	4.5	4.7	2.3
5.5	5.0	5.1	—	5.4	4.9	4.7	—	6.2	5.4	5.4	—	5.2	4.1	4.1	—
4.8	4.6	4.6	—	4.8	4.4	4.0	—	4.8	4.0	4.3	—	4.7	3.9	4.1	—
11.0	10.9	10.6	—	11.5	10.7	10.5	—	11.9	11.0	11.1	—	11.4	11.0	10.9	—
17.6	17.3	17.3	—	17.2	16.6	16.6	—	18.9	19.0	19.1	—	15.6	15.2	15.1	—
16.2	16.2	16.0	—	17.2	17.3	17.1	—	20.1	20.1	20.3	—	16.5	17.6	17.4	—
11.6	10.8	10.6	—	11.4	11.3	11.3	—	12.8	12.7	12.5	—	11.8	11.1	11.5	—
6.6	7.2	7.2	5.2	6.0	6.7	6.8	5.2	6.5	7.0	7.0	5.1	6.0	6.6	6.7	4.9
79.7	79.8	80.5	53.8	61.8	63.5	63.2	55.0	58.5	60.4	60.0	62.1	82.2	83.3	83.1	43.3
51.3	50.1	50.3	29.3	49.4	49.8	50.2	33.8	52.8	52.9	51.9	25.7	37.7	36.2	35.6	27.2
17.6	18.2	16.7	—	16.0	15.2	15.0	—	17.2	16.4	16.3	—	18.8	18.3	17.6	—
14.7	15.1	14.7	—	13.7	14.9	14.7	—	13.9	14.0	14.1	—	13.6	14.5	14.3	—
21.4	21.7	22.5	—	37.2	38.1	37.5	—	33.5	34.2	33.8	—	18.0	18.6	18.6	—
55.0	48.4	38.0	—	77.0	63.5	62.5	—	74.5	61.8	58.3	—	55.0	57.0	49.0	—

² Per pound

TABLE 4.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL

Article	Unit	Norfolk, Va.			Omaha, Nebr.			Peoria, Ill.		
		Nov. 15, 1925	Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1926	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1925	Oct. 15, 1926
					1913	1925				
Sirloin steak	Pound	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.
Round steak	do	40.3	41.5	41.0	25.9	36.8	38.4	37.5	32.5	35.4
Rib roast	do	33.7	35.4	34.5	23.1	33.1	35.8	34.8	31.6	33.8
Chuck roast	do	31.6	32.0	32.0	20.0	26.4	26.7	26.2	23.0	25.0
Plate beef	do	22.6	22.9	23.5	17.0	21.2	22.1	22.0	19.5	21.3
Pork chops	do	15.7	15.6	15.5	11.1	12.2	12.4	12.6	13.3	14.4
Bacon, sliced	do	35.8	39.6	37.2	21.1	36.8	42.0	37.5	32.6	38.5
Ham, sliced	do	48.1	50.5	49.9	28.8	52.2	54.8	54.8	50.0	52.0
Lamb, leg of	do	44.6	52.0	50.5	31.3	55.5	62.4	61.6	51.4	57.5
Hens	do	35.7	38.5	38.3	16.3	29.1	31.7	31.1	31.1	33.7
Salmon, canned, red	do	34.6	36.9	35.4	—	37.8	37.4	36.4	37.6	35.8
Milk, fresh	Quart	17.0	17.5	17.5	8.7	12.1	11.3	11.3	12.0	12.0
Milk, evaporated	15-16 oz. can	11.4	11.5	11.1	—	11.8	11.6	11.8	11.6	11.5
Butter	Pound	59.9	56.7	57.4	37.0	55.1	50.5	52.1	55.7	49.9
Oleomargarine (all butter substitutes)	do	27.5	28.0	27.2	—	31.3	29.9	29.9	31.2	29.6
Cheese	do	34.8	33.6	34.8	23.3	36.9	35.5	36.9	35.8	35.1
Lard	do	22.8	20.6	20.2	17.7	25.7	24.1	23.2	23.7	22.6
Vegetable lard substitute	do	22.2	23.5	22.8	—	28.0	27.8	28.1	27.4	27.0
Eggs, strictly fresh	Dozen	63.9	56.8	65.5	43.3	48.7	45.6	50.1	60.1	46.8
Eggs, storage	do	46.1	48.0	48.7	30.0	43.8	41.5	43.4	45.8	42.0
Bread	Pound	9.5	9.9	9.9	5.2	9.8	10.3	10.2	10.0	10.1
Flour	do	6.0	5.9	5.8	2.7	5.2	5.0	4.8	5.8	5.6
Corn meal	do	4.8	4.6	4.6	2.7	5.0	4.9	4.9	5.0	4.9
Rolled oats	do	8.6	8.8	8.7	—	10.7	10.3	10.3	9.2	9.1
Corn flakes	8-oz. pkg	10.4	10.3	10.5	—	12.5	12.5	12.4	12.0	11.8
Wheat cereal	28-oz. pkg	23.9	24.2	24.2	—	27.8	28.3	28.0	25.3	25.6
Macaroni	Pound	19.3	19.0	19.1	—	21.6	21.1	21.0	20.8	19.9
Rice	do	11.4	12.1	12.6	8.5	10.8	11.5	11.4	11.6	11.7
Beans, navy	do	9.1	8.2	8.4	—	9.9	9.5	9.6	8.9	8.6
Potatoes	do	5.8	4.4	4.4	1.8	5.5	3.7	4.0	4.9	3.8
Onions	do	6.4	5.2	5.6	—	5.7	5.2	5.1	6.2	5.8
Cabbage	do	4.1	4.6	4.6	—	4.1	3.6	3.7	4.6	3.3
Beans, baked	No. 2 can	10.1	10.0	9.8	—	14.8	14.0	13.9	11.8	12.2
Corn, canned	do	16.1	15.8	15.8	—	16.7	15.9	15.6	16.6	15.8
Peas, canned	do	21.3	20.6	19.9	—	16.9	15.8	16.1	18.8	18.3
Tomatoes, canned	do	10.6	10.1	10.0	—	15.2	13.7	13.4	14.4	13.6
Sugar, granulated	Pound	6.0	6.7	6.7	5.7	6.7	7.3	7.3	7.4	7.6
Tea	do	91.4	93.2	90.2	56.0	77.1	78.8	79.1	64.2	68.6
Coffee	do	49.3	50.1	52.5	30.0	57.5	57.5	55.9	52.1	52.1
Prunes	do	16.5	15.8	16.4	—	17.9	17.0	17.1	19.6	19.5
Raisins	do	14.0	14.6	14.8	—	16.0	15.4	15.6	14.3	15.0
Bananas	Dozen	33.8	33.9	33.3	—	49.9	41.5	41.5	49.4	40.2
Oranges	do	60.5	58.1	51.5	—	56.6	50.9	49.8	65.4	49.2

¹ The steak for which prices are here quoted is called "sirloin" in this city, but in most of the other cities included in this report it would be known as "porterhouse" steak.

RETAIL PRICES OF FOOD

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ARTICLES OF FOOD IN 51 CITIES ON SPECIFIED DATES—Continued

Philadelphia, Pa.			Pittsburgh, Pa.			Portland, Me.			Portland, Oreg.			Providence, R. I.		
Nov. 15	Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1926	Nov. 15	Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1926	Nov. 15	Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1926	Nov. 15	Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1926	Nov. 15	Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1926
1913	1925	1913	1913	1925	1925	1913	1925	1925	1913	1925	1925	1913	1925	1925
Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.
130.5	154.8	156.1	154.8	27.3	45.9	47.7	46.1	59.6	62.6	60.5	22.9	28.0	29.6	29.4
25.7	39.6	42.0	41.4	24.0	37.5	40.1	39.4	45.1	47.3	47.2	21.0	25.2	26.9	26.5
21.5	36.5	36.6	36.3	21.7	33.1	34.2	34.0	30.0	29.9	29.7	19.1	24.4	24.9	24.4
18.0	23.2	26.1	25.7	17.3	24.1	25.5	25.4	20.7	21.6	21.6	16.7	16.6	18.3	18.6
12.0	11.7	12.7	12.6	12.8	12.3	13.5	13.0	16.2	16.4	16.8	13.5	12.1	13.2	13.4
22.5	39.9	46.8	43.4	22.5	37.6	45.2	39.7	40.3	44.5	41.2	21.4	36.8	41.1	39.5
26.9	47.3	49.2	48.3	30.4	57.3	56.5	55.4	46.0	47.1	46.3	30.3	52.1	58.1	58.3
30.4	58.4	61.9	59.6	29.8	59.0	65.7	64.1	54.3	61.6	59.2	30.0	52.5	60.3	60.0
18.8	40.2	40.0	40.5	20.3	39.5	40.5	40.1	39.1	36.7	37.2	17.5	34.9	35.5	35.7
23.1	40.3	41.1	41.2	23.8	41.3	41.4	41.8	39.8	42.0	42.0	20.3	32.1	33.8	34.5
37.6	33.5	31.6	—	36.7	34.5	34.0	38.3	37.8	33.9	—	32.3	36.2	36.2	34.9
8.0	12.0	12.5	13.0	9.2	14.5	14.0	14.7	13.5	13.8	13.8	9.7	12.7	12.0	9.0
11.5	11.5	11.4	—	11.8	11.5	11.4	12.5	12.5	12.5	—	10.4	10.7	10.7	12.1
44.3	63.4	58.1	60.9	40.4	60.7	57.1	59.9	59.9	54.9	56.1	40.4	62.9	53.4	53.1
32.7	30.8	30.6	—	32.6	31.1	32.1	29.5	28.3	28.3	—	31.5	30.3	30.4	29.8
25.0	40.3	39.6	39.0	24.5	38.7	38.6	39.7	38.1	38.1	38.0	20.8	39.4	38.2	37.3
15.5	23.4	21.7	20.5	15.7	22.7	22.2	21.5	22.8	20.6	19.7	17.8	24.8	24.3	23.2
25.7	25.3	25.2	—	26.3	27.6	27.5	25.3	25.4	25.2	—	29.2	28.9	28.9	27.2
50.8	77.0	62.6	73.0	46.3	71.9	58.3	67.3	85.7	68.8	82.0	55.0	60.5	53.3	53.8
34.7	48.6	47.4	48.2	33.4	47.9	44.8	48.4	51.9	48.2	50.2	37.5	49.0	45.0	48.0
4.8	9.3	9.5	9.5	5.4	9.3	9.3	9.3	10.0	10.1	10.1	5.5	9.6	9.5	9.5
3.2	5.7	5.5	5.5	3.2	5.8	5.5	5.4	5.9	5.7	5.6	2.9	5.3	5.2	5.2
2.9	5.1	4.8	4.7	3.0	5.5	6.3	6.0	5.2	5.1	5.1	3.5	5.7	5.0	5.5
8.7	8.7	8.7	—	9.4	9.3	9.4	7.5	8.0	7.9	—	10.3	10.4	10.3	9.1
10.1	10.1	10.1	—	10.6	10.4	10.5	11.6	11.6	11.6	—	11.3	11.4	11.4	10.8
24.6	24.6	24.5	—	25.3	25.1	25.0	25.6	25.9	25.8	—	26.6	26.8	26.8	24.4
21.5	21.0	20.8	—	23.4	23.3	24.0	24.5	24.6	24.9	—	18.0	18.0	18.0	23.8
9.8	12.2	12.3	12.1	9.2	12.0	13.0	12.8	12.4	13.1	13.2	8.6	11.2	10.9	10.8
9.3	9.0	9.2	—	9.2	8.2	8.8	10.2	9.5	9.6	—	10.2	9.9	9.9	10.3
2.3	5.9	4.4	4.6	2.0	4.8	3.7	4.1	5.1	3.2	3.6	1.2	3.8	2.4	2.4
5.6	5.0	4.9	—	6.0	5.5	5.4	5.4	4.7	4.6	—	4.4	3.6	3.3	5.5
4.7	4.3	4.2	—	4.6	4.7	4.7	3.5	3.7	3.2	—	2.8	3.5	3.0	4.1
10.9	10.5	10.6	—	12.8	12.7	12.8	14.9	14.8	15.0	—	14.6	13.3	13.4	11.8
15.3	14.6	14.7	—	17.5	16.6	16.7	17.0	16.1	16.5	—	19.7	18.8	18.5	18.4
15.4	15.5	15.8	—	18.0	17.2	17.3	19.5	19.0	18.9	—	19.6	18.6	18.3	19.8
11.6	11.6	11.9	—	13.3	12.4	12.5	22.6	20.6	20.2	—	17.1	16.4	15.9	13.9
5.0	6.1	6.7	6.7	5.7	6.9	7.2	7.2	6.5	7.0	7.1	6.1	6.9	7.2	6.4
54.0	70.7	72.1	70.9	58.0	82.1	85.8	85.7	61.1	61.9	61.9	55.0	75.2	76.9	76.9
24.5	45.6	45.6	45.6	30.0	51.8	51.3	51.4	54.5	53.8	53.8	35.0	52.6	52.6	52.2
14.4	14.7	14.5	—	18.2	18.5	17.8	15.8	15.1	15.3	—	14.5	10.5	9.6	17.6
13.5	14.2	13.8	—	14.1	14.8	14.8	13.1	13.7	13.6	—	13.1	13.9	13.9	14.0
31.6	30.1	30.3	—	37.3	39.2	39.7	10.0	10.8	10.9	—	12.8	12.9	13.1	31.9
71.3	60.8	57.1	—	60.2	59.0	59.0	66.1	64.1	61.4	—	58.1	51.0	56.2	75.6

* No. 3 can.

† No. 2½ can.

‡ Per pound.

TABLE 4.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL

Article	Unit	Richmond, Va.				Rochester, N. Y.			St. Louis, Mo.			
		Nov. 15—		Nov. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1925	Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1926	Nov. 15—		Nov. 15, 1926	Oct. 15, 1926
		1913	1925						1913	1925		
Sirloin steak	Pound	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.
Round steak	do	22.2	40.3	39.8	39.9	39.4	41.8	40.5	26.6	36.6	37.6	38.0
Rib roast	do	20.0	35.1	35.4	35.6	33.6	35.2	33.9	23.6	34.3	36.2	36.7
Chuck roast	do	18.9	32.4	32.2	32.0	29.7	30.6	30.5	20.1	29.9	30.6	30.4
Plate beef	do	15.9	23.3	23.2	23.3	23.9	25.0	24.5	16.0	20.9	21.6	21.4
Pork chops	do	13.2	15.8	16.1	17.1	13.3	14.3	14.0	12.4	14.2	15.1	15.6
Bacon, sliced	do	21.2	38.2	43.3	41.1	39.5	45.9	41.7	17.8	32.5	38.7	35.6
Ham, sliced	do	27.2	46.4	48.6	48.1	43.5	46.5	45.8	25.8	45.8	48.9	48.6
Lamb, leg of	do	25.0	44.6	48.5	47.2	51.9	58.7	58.1	27.3	50.3	58.8	58.6
Hens	do	19.3	45.6	45.3	44.8	38.1	37.5	36.8	18.3	38.0	38.1	37.6
Salmon, canned, red	do	35.0	37.0	36.3	39.3	41.5	40.7	40.7	16.5	31.7	33.7	33.1
Milk, fresh	Quart	10.0	14.0	14.0	14.0	12.5	12.5	12.5	8.8	13.0	13.0	13.0
Milk, evaporated	15-16 oz. can	12.7	12.6	12.4	11.6	11.6	11.6	11.6	10.7	10.3	10.4	10.4
Butter	Pound	41.2	62.7	58.5	60.1	59.1	53.5	55.1	38.1	61.0	56.2	58.6
Oleomargarine (all butter substitutes)	do	31.7	32.0	31.9	31.8	30.6	31.2	31.2	28.3	27.7	27.7	27.2
Cheese	do	22.8	36.5	35.9	36.3	38.2	36.0	36.0	20.3	36.0	35.3	35.8
Lard	do	15.4	23.2	21.0	20.6	22.5	20.5	19.5	12.9	18.6	18.0	17.0
Vegetable lard substitute	do	26.2	25.5	25.5	23.8	24.1	24.4	24.4	26.5	25.9	25.9	25.8
Eggs, strictly fresh	Dozen	40.0	61.8	51.5	58.6	72.7	63.9	77.3	38.9	61.0	48.0	58.8
Eggs, storage	do	33.0	46.9	43.0	45.0	47.0	50.0	49.0	32.5	43.9	43.1	43.0
Bread	Pound	5.3	9.4	9.5	9.5	8.9	9.0	9.0	5.6	9.9	9.8	9.8
Flour	do	3.2	6.0	5.9	5.8	5.9	5.7	5.6	2.9	5.8	5.3	5.4
Corn meal	do	2.3	5.0	4.6	4.7	6.5	5.6	5.6	2.5	4.6	4.3	4.3
Rolled oats	do	9.4	9.0	8.9	9.4	9.2	9.1	9.1	8.8	8.7	8.7	8.4
Corn flakes	8-oz. pkg.	11.3	11.3	11.0	10.3	10.1	10.3	10.3	10.1	10.2	10.0	10.0
Wheat cereal	28-oz. pkg.	25.4	25.8	25.8	25.1	25.4	25.4	25.4	24.7	24.2	24.6	24.6
Macaroni	Pound	21.1	20.2	20.2	21.8	21.0	21.7	21.7	21.5	21.0	21.0	21.0
Rice	do	10.0	12.8	13.3	13.0	11.1	10.9	11.0	8.1	10.7	11.0	10.7
Beans, navy	do	10.0	9.1	9.3	10.0	8.9	9.3	9.3	8.4	7.9	8.1	8.1
Potatoes	do	2.0	6.1	4.9	4.5	4.8	2.8	3.3	1.8	5.2	4.3	4.2
Onions	do	6.7	7.1	6.9	5.0	4.7	4.7	4.7	5.7	5.0	5.0	5.0
Cabbage	do	4.9	4.6	4.3	3.2	4.0	3.2	3.2	4.0	3.3	3.3	3.5
Beans, baked	No. 2 can	10.8	10.1	9.9	10.9	10.4	10.4	10.4	11.2	10.6	10.6	10.6
Corn, canned	do	16.2	15.6	15.3	16.9	16.1	16.9	16.9	16.2	16.4	16.0	16.0
Peas, canned	do	20.3	20.1	20.1	18.9	18.4	18.1	18.1	16.8	16.3	15.9	15.9
Tomatoes, canned	do	11.7	10.5	10.6	13.8	13.4	13.8	13.8	12.6	11.3	11.3	11.3
Sugar, granulated	Pound	5.4	6.6	7.1	7.0	6.0	6.7	6.8	5.1	6.5	7.2	7.1
Tea	do	56.0	88.5	90.5	89.2	66.6	68.7	68.7	55.0	71.0	74.8	74.0
Coffee	do	27.4	49.9	49.4	48.9	49.5	47.9	47.7	24.4	49.0	48.6	48.1
Prunes	do	19.1	17.2	17.2	18.3	16.7	16.0	16.0	19.0	18.4	18.4	18.6
Raisins	do	14.4	14.8	14.4	14.0	14.3	14.2	14.2	14.7	15.0	14.8	14.8
Bananas	Dozen	36.2	37.3	37.3	36.8	36.3	37.0	37.0	32.7	32.7	31.8	31.8
Oranges	do	66.8	56.2	54.6	72.5	52.3	56.5	56.5	59.2	54.5	52.0	52.0

¹ No. 2½ can.

ARTICLES OF FOOD IN 51 CITIES ON SPECIFIED DATES—Continued

St. Paul, Minn.			Salt Lake City, Utah				San Francisco, Calif.				Savannah, Ga.			Scranton, Pa.		
Nov. 15— 1913	Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 1926	Nov. 15— 1913	Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 1926	Nov. 15— 1913	Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 1926	Nov. 15— 1913	Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 1926	Nov. 15— 1913	Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 1926		
Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	
25.0	33.4	36.6	34.4	22.4	27.8	30.8	30.8	21.0	31.4	31.4	31.8	31.3	34.2	34.2	26.0	
20.8	27.9	31.9	30.1	20.0	25.1	27.4	27.6	19.7	28.6	28.6	29.5	25.8	27.9	27.5	21.5	
20.0	27.5	29.3	29.2	19.0	20.9	23.5	23.7	21.3	29.9	29.4	20.5	25.0	27.5	23.0	37.6	
16.0	21.3	23.3	22.9	14.5	16.4	17.8	17.9	15.5	19.3	18.9	19.2	15.7	18.8	18.8	17.6	
10.8	12.1	13.2	13.0	12.5	11.9	13.1	12.9	14.3	15.1	14.2	15.0	13.8	14.0	13.3	11.9	
18.8	33.8	38.7	34.0	23.4	36.9	41.1	40.1	24.2	45.1	47.0	46.9	34.8	37.1	37.1	21.8	
25.3	48.9	49.8	49.1	30.0	47.3	53.0	52.1	34.4	62.2	64.3	63.9	44.6	46.8	46.8	27.5	
28.3	48.8	55.3	51.6	30.0	51.2	60.3	60.7	32.0	64.2	67.9	67.9	45.0	50.0	50.0	29.3	
16.1	31.6	33.9	32.4	18.0	33.6	33.6	34.6	17.0	40.0	37.6	37.4	43.0	39.0	39.0	18.7	
16.4	29.0	30.2	30.2	22.6	30.9	33.0	33.2	24.8	42.4	44.7	46.1	34.5	35.8	34.2	21.0	
37.1	38.4	37.9	—	—	35.8	37.0	37.4	—	—	35.2	32.4	32.4	36.6	38.1	36.9	—
7.8	12.0	11.0	11.0	8.7	11.5	11.3	11.5	10.0	14.0	14.0	14.0	17.5	17.0	17.0	8.8	
12.0	11.7	11.7	—	—	10.6	10.5	10.5	—	10.3	10.2	10.1	11.3	11.1	11.0	—	
35.0	53.3	50.6	52.3	39.2	58.8	48.9	49.0	40.4	68.1	55.2	55.2	61.6	56.1	55.9	37.1	58.9
28.8	27.9	27.5	—	—	30.9	29.7	29.7	—	32.2	31.4	30.8	36.3	35.0	34.7	—	33.0
21.0	35.5	34.6	35.1	24.2	32.0	29.9	30.2	21.0	40.1	38.7	38.7	35.8	35.2	35.5	18.3	36.1
14.8	22.6	21.0	20.5	20.0	24.9	24.9	24.3	17.7	25.8	25.0	24.6	22.1	21.1	20.0	16.5	24.6
28.2	27.3	27.4	—	—	29.6	30.0	29.7	—	28.1	28.0	28.5	19.1	19.1	17.7	—	27.1
39.6	52.1	46.8	52.6	46.7	56.5	51.5	54.2	65.0	66.6	61.0	59.6	67.4	57.6	63.3	51.3	71.0
31.2	41.6	41.3	43.3	35.0	45.0	—	—	40.7	50.3	50.2	48.8	47.6	46.7	46.0	32.5	50.0
6.0	10.2	9.9	10.0	5.9	10.5	9.9	9.9	5.9	9.9	9.8	9.8	10.2	10.5	10.5	5.6	10.3
2.9	5.7	5.6	2.4	4.7	4.3	4.3	3.4	6.0	5.7	5.8	7.0	6.7	6.7	3.6	6.2	6.2
2.5	5.8	5.3	5.1	3.3	5.2	5.5	5.3	3.5	5.9	6.3	6.3	3.8	3.6	3.5	—	7.7
10.0	9.9	9.9	—	—	8.9	8.9	8.7	—	9.7	9.7	9.7	9.0	8.7	8.8	—	10.0
12.2	11.9	12.0	—	—	12.3	12.5	12.3	—	10.6	10.5	10.5	10.5	10.2	10.4	—	11.1
25.9	27.0	27.0	—	—	25.4	25.5	25.5	—	25.1	25.3	25.3	24.5	24.4	24.3	—	26.3
19.0	18.5	18.5	—	—	19.4	20.2	20.0	—	14.9	16.0	16.0	18.1	18.3	18.5	—	23.7
10.0	11.4	12.6	12.3	8.2	11.5	11.2	10.5	8.5	11.4	11.8	11.5	10.1	10.5	10.0	8.5	11.6
9.9	9.2	9.3	—	—	10.7	9.3	9.2	—	10.1	9.5	9.6	11.3	10.4	10.4	—	12.7
1.4	4.2	3.0	3.1	1.3	3.6	2.7	2.6	1.9	5.2	3.7	3.8	6.2	4.5	4.7	1.8	4.8
5.6	4.8	4.6	—	—	2.9	2.5	2.5	—	4.2	3.6	3.6	6.4	6.2	6.2	—	5.9
4.0	2.4	2.7	—	—	3.1	2.7	2.7	—	—	—	—	5.1	4.9	4.8	—	3.1
14.1	13.9	13.9	—	—	14.5	14.2	13.8	—	14.0	13.3	13.3	11.9	12.5	12.5	—	11.4
15.3	15.0	15.0	—	—	16.0	15.2	15.0	—	18.8	18.2	18.3	16.9	15.3	15.4	—	17.5
16.4	15.6	15.6	—	—	16.4	16.1	15.8	—	18.8	18.5	18.4	16.7	16.6	16.4	—	18.6
14.7	14.3	14.6	—	—	15.9	14.5	14.5	—	15.9	15.3	15.2	10.9	10.2	10.3	—	13.5
5.1	6.9	7.5	7.5	5.7	7.3	7.9	7.9	5.4	6.3	6.8	6.8	6.5	6.9	6.9	5.6	6.7
45.0	71.9	68.1	68.7	65.7	84.7	88.3	87.1	50.0	68.3	71.0	69.3	78.3	81.3	81.0	52.5	66.7
30.0	52.0	52.8	52.8	35.8	56.9	56.4	56.7	32.0	52.2	53.7	53.4	48.2	48.1	47.4	31.3	52.9
17.0	16.4	16.4	—	—	15.9	14.9	15.6	—	14.1	14.8	14.1	15.8	15.6	15.8	—	18.3
14.8	15.7	15.5	—	—	13.5	14.2	13.8	—	13.0	13.1	13.1	13.6	15.0	14.7	—	14.2
10.3	11.4	12.0	—	—	14.2	14.0	14.1	—	34.4	28.5	30.0	31.8	32.3	33.0	—	33.8
78.1	53.2	56.2	—	—	54.4	47.9	53.8	—	60.5	48.6	51.1	54.5	43.8	39.7	—	68.7

* Per pound.

TABLE 4.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOOD IN 51 CITIES ON SPECIFIED DATES—Continued

Article	Unit	Seattle, Wash.				Springfield, Ill.			Washington, D. C.			
		Nov. 15—		Nov. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1925	Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1926	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1926	Nov. 15, 1926
		1913	1925						1913	1925		
Sirloin steak	Pound	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.
Round steak	do	23.6	32.4	33.2	32.2	33.1	36.4	35.4	26.5	43.8	47.2	46.1
Rib roast	do	20.6	28.3	29.1	28.8	32.3	36.0	35.0	22.5	37.1	40.3	39.6
Chuck roast	do	20.0	25.8	26.6	27.0	22.9	24.1	23.6	21.0	32.8	34.7	34.7
Plate beef	do	15.6	18.1	19.5	19.5	19.1	21.3	21.6	17.6	23.3	25.2	24.9
Pork chops	do	24.0	38.5	42.6	41.3	33.8	40.5	36.7	21.4	40.3	45.7	42.1
Bacon, sliced	do	32.0	56.9	61.7	59.6	47.2	49.8	49.6	26.4	48.4	51.6	49.9
Ham, sliced	do	30.0	57.9	64.7	63.9	52.0	58.8	56.5	31.3	59.0	61.6	60.0
Lamb, leg of	do	18.4	35.7	36.5	36.1	37.2	39.0	39.0	19.1	41.1	40.1	39.7
Hens	do	24.2	34.5	33.8	34.2	31.1	34.9	34.0	21.3	38.8	40.4	39.7
Salmon, canned, red	do	36.0	36.6	35.5	37.6	39.0	38.3	38.3	37.3	35.6	32.3	32.3
Milk, fresh	Quart	10.0	13.0	10.3	10.3	12.5	12.5	12.5	9.0	15.0	15.0	15.0
Milk, evaporated	15-16 oz. can	10.8	10.7	10.7	12.0	11.7	11.8	11.8	11.9	12.0	12.0	12.0
Butter	Pound	40.8	61.7	53.2	53.3	50.5	53.3	56.5	40.3	62.0	57.8	58.7
Oleomargarine (all butter substitutes)	do	31.8	31.0	30.9	32.5	30.7	30.7	30.3	31.0	31.5	31.5	31.1
Cheese	do	22.8	36.4	34.9	35.0	37.2	36.3	36.7	23.5	39.5	38.8	39.1
Lard	do	16.9	24.9	24.0	23.1	23.4	21.9	21.9	15.0	22.8	21.2	20.2
Vegetable lard substitute	do	28.2	28.2	28.0	28.0	28.4	28.0	28.0	25.1	25.8	25.8	25.8
Eggs, strictly fresh	Dozen	59.2	62.5	59.1	55.2	63.9	47.5	63.0	47.9	76.0	62.8	71.7
Eggs, storage	do	37.5	49.6	46.7	48.0	47.2	45.8	47.0	35.0	49.0	48.5	49.7
Bread	Pound	5.6	9.7	9.8	9.8	10.1	10.1	10.1	5.7	8.0	8.8	8.9
Flour	do	2.9	5.2	5.0	5.0	6.0	5.9	5.9	3.8	6.4	6.4	6.3
Corn meal	do	3.2	5.4	4.9	5.0	5.3	4.9	5.1	2.6	5.5	5.1	5.2
Rolled oats	do	—	—	9.0	9.0	9.0	10.1	10.3	10.1	—	9.3	9.2
Corn flakes	8-oz. pkg	11.9	11.5	11.6	11.9	11.5	11.8	—	10.6	10.8	10.8	10.8
Wheat cereal	28-oz. pkg	26.5	27.8	27.7	27.1	26.7	27.3	—	24.5	24.8	24.6	24.6
Macaroni	Pound	18.3	18.2	18.4	19.8	19.3	19.3	—	23.4	23.8	23.8	23.8
Rice	do	7.7	12.7	12.5	13.3	11.2	11.2	11.2	9.4	12.3	12.8	12.4
Beans, navy	do	10.7	10.0	9.9	9.3	8.8	9.0	—	9.3	8.3	8.6	8.6
Potatoes	do	1.4	4.5	2.6	2.9	5.6	3.9	4.1	1.8	5.5	4.2	4.3
Onions	do	—	—	4.4	3.6	3.6	5.5	4.5	4.4	—	6.4	5.8
Cabbage	do	—	—	3.1	3.8	3.6	4.8	3.7	3.8	—	4.6	4.6
Beans, baked	No. 2 can	14.2	12.5	12.9	11.5	10.6	10.6	—	10.8	10.3	10.3	10.3
Corn, canned	do	19.0	18.6	18.4	16.8	15.2	15.2	—	16.4	15.5	15.7	15.7
Peas, canned	do	20.6	20.3	20.3	17.4	16.9	17.1	—	17.4	16.5	16.6	16.6
Tomatoes, canned	do	18.1	17.6	17.1	14.7	13.8	13.8	—	11.6	11.3	11.3	11.3
Sugar, granulated	Pound	6.1	6.9	7.1	7.1	7.0	7.8	7.7	5.1	6.5	6.8	6.8
Tea	do	50.0	79.8	81.0	77.9	77.0	82.5	82.5	57.5	87.7	88.7	89.7
Coffee	do	28.0	52.0	52.8	52.8	53.3	53.4	53.7	28.8	48.2	49.2	48.7
Prunes	do	—	—	14.9	15.0	14.6	17.7	17.0	16.6	—	17.9	18.1
Raisins	do	—	—	14.0	14.9	14.4	14.7	15.9	16.1	—	14.0	14.8
Bananas	Dozen	—	—	12.9	13.5	13.9	9.9	10.5	11.6	—	34.7	35.3
Oranges	do	—	—	61.2	51.3	54.0	63.3	57.2	66.1	—	61.0	63.9

¹ No. 2½ can.² Per pound.

Index Numbers of Retail Prices of Food in the United States

IN TABLE 5 index numbers are given which show the changes in the retail prices of specified food articles, by years, from 1907 to 1925,² and by months for 1925, and for January, through November, 1926. These index numbers, or relative prices, are based on the year 1913 as 100 and are computed by dividing the average price of each commodity for each month and each year by the average price of that commodity for 1913. These figures must be used with caution. For example, the relative price of rib roast for the year 1923 was 143.4, which means that the average money price for the year 1923 was 43.4 per cent higher than the average money price for the year 1913. The relative price of rib roast for the year 1922 was 139.4, which figures show an increase of 4 points, but an increase of slightly less than 3 per cent in the year.

In the last column of Table 5 are given index numbers showing changes in the retail cost of all articles of food combined. Since January, 1921, these index numbers have been computed from the average prices of the articles of food shown in Tables 1 and 2, weighted according to the average family consumption in 1918. (See March, 1921, issue, p. 25.) Although previous to January, 1921, the number of food articles varied, these index numbers have been so computed as to be strictly comparable for the entire period. The index numbers based on the average for the year 1913 as 100 are 160.0 for October and 161.6 for November, 1926.

The curve shown in the chart on page 207 pictures more readily to the eye the changes in the cost of the food budget than do the index numbers given in the table. The chart has been drawn on the logarithmic scale, because the percentages of increase or decrease are more accurately shown than on the arithmetic scale.

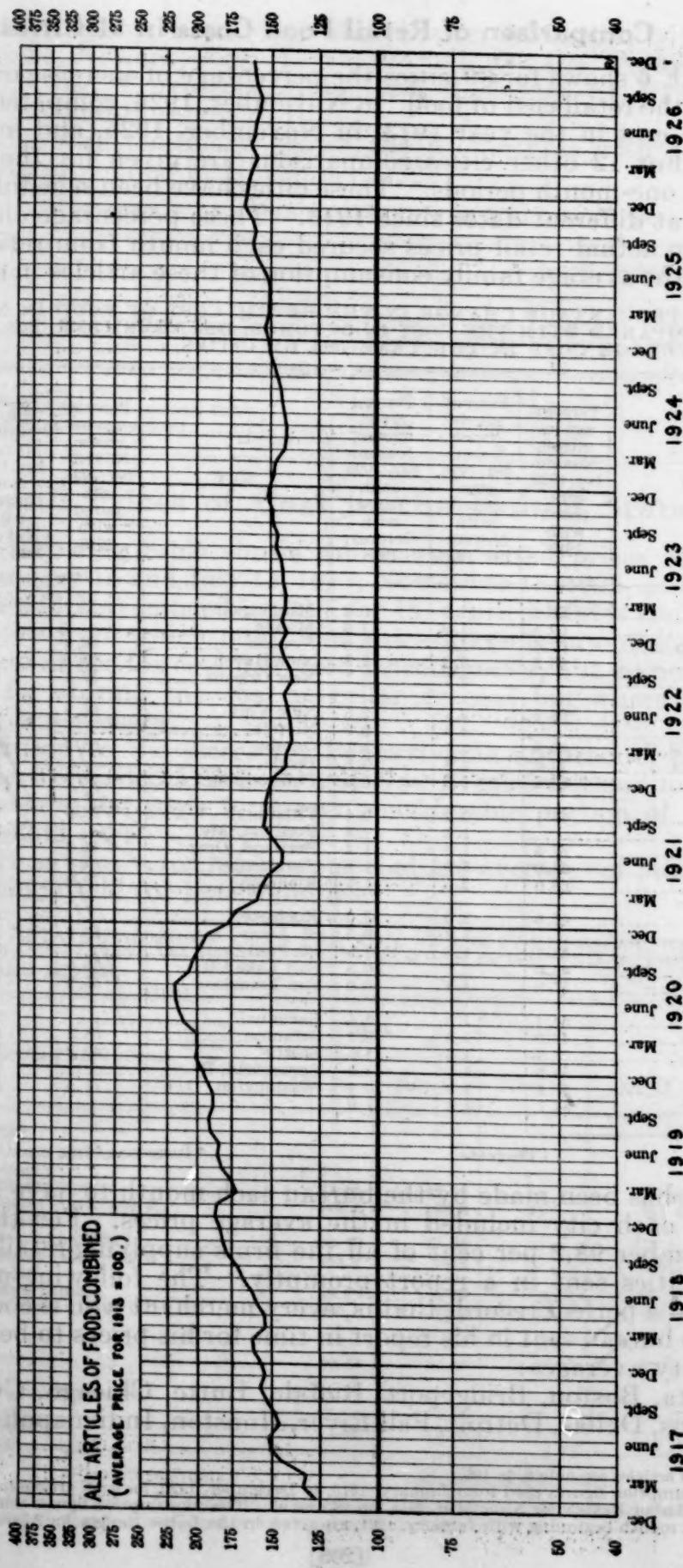
² For index numbers of each month, January, 1913, to December, 1920, see February, 1921, issue pp. 19-21; for each month of 1921 and 1922 see February, 1923, issue, p. 60; and for each month of 1923 and 1924, see February, 1925, issue, p. 21.

TABLE 5.—INDEX NUMBERS SHOWING CHANGES IN THE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOOD IN THE UNITED STATES, BY YEARS, 1907 TO 1925, AND BY MONTHS FOR 1925 AND JANUARY THROUGH NOVEMBER, 1926

(Average for year 1913=100.0)

Year and month	Sirloin steak	Round steak	Rib roast	Chuck roast	Pork chops	Bacon	Ham	Hens	Milk	Butter	Cheese	Lard	Eggs	Bread	Flour	Corn meal	Rice	Pota-toes	Sugar	Tea	Cof-fee	All articles
1907	71.5	68.0	76.1	74.3	74.4	75.7	81.4	87.2	85.3	80.7	84.1	80.7	96.0	87.6	105.3	105.3	105.3	105.3	105.3	105.3	82.0	
1908	73.3	71.2	78.1	76.1	76.1	77.6	83.0	89.6	85.5	80.5	84.1	80.5	96.0	92.5	111.2	107.7	111.2	111.2	111.2	111.2	84.3	
1909	76.6	73.5	81.3	77.9	82.0	88.5	91.3	90.1	92.6	90.1	92.6	90.1	106.4	93.9	112.6	106.3	112.6	112.6	112.6	112.6	88.7	
1910	80.3	77.9	84.6	91.6	94.5	91.4	93.6	94.6	93.8	103.8	97.7	103.8	108.2	94.9	101.0	109.3	101.0	109.3	101.0	109.3	93.0	
1911	80.6	78.7	84.8	91.3	89.3	91.0	95.5	87.9	88.4	93.5	97.4	91.2	101.6	94.3	130.5	111.4	130.5	111.4	130.5	111.4	92.0	
1912	91.0	89.3	93.6	90.6	90.5	90.6	93.5	90.5	90.6	93.5	97.4	93.5	105.2	101.6	132.1	115.1	132.1	115.1	132.1	115.1	97.6	
1913	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0		
1914	102.0	105.8	103.0	104.4	104.1	104.6	101.8	101.7	102.2	100.5	94.4	103.6	98.6	102.3	112.5	103.9	105.1	101.2	108.3	108.2	100.4	
1915	101.1	103.0	101.4	100.6	100.0	99.6	97.5	99.2	96.4	105.0	93.4	98.7	125.0	125.8	104.6	104.3	88.9	100.2	100.6	100.6	101.3	
1916	107.5	109.7	107.4	106.9	106.0	108.3	106.4	106.2	102.2	110.7	103.0	116.7	111.0	108.8	130.4	134.6	112.6	104.6	104.4	100.4	100.3	
1917	124.0	129.8	125.5	130.6	128.8	151.7	151.9	142.2	134.5	125.4	127.2	150.4	174.9	139.4	164.3	211.2	192.2	119.0	252.7	169.3	106.9	
1918	165.2	175.7	177.0	186.5	178.1	177.0	176.5	177.0	176.2	150.7	164.9	175.0	203.0	175.0	226.7	148.3	188.2	178.3	178.3	178.3	168.3	
1919	164.2	174.4	164.1	168.8	166.7	174.1	201.4	198.5	193.0	174.2	177.0	192.8	223.5	182.0	178.6	218.3	173.0	223.5	205.5	223.5	185.9	
1920	172.1	177.1	167.7	163.8	151.2	201.4	183.7	206.3	209.9	187.6	183.0	188.2	186.7	197.4	205.4	216.5	216.7	200.0	370.6	352.7	134.7	
1921	152.8	154.3	147.0	132.5	118.2	163.2	168.2	181.4	186.4	164.0	135.0	153.9	113.9	147.5	176.8	175.8	150.0	100.2	182.4	145.5	128.1	
1922	147.2	144.8	143.9	123.1	105.6	157.8	157.4	147.4	181.4	169.0	147.2	125.1	148.9	107.6	155.4	150.0	150.0	164.2	127.1	127.1	141.6	
1923	153.2	150.2	143.4	126.3	106.6	144.8	144.8	169.1	164.3	155.1	155.1	147.4	167.0	112.0	134.8	155.4	142.4	136.7	106.2	170.6	183.6	
1924	155.9	151.6	145.5	130.0	109.1	146.7	139.6	168.4	165.7	155.1	155.1	155.0	159.7	120.3	138.6	157.1	148.5	156.7	116.1	158.8	145.9	
1925, January	159.8	155.6	149.5	135.0	114.1	174.3	173.0	195.5	171.8	157.3	143.1	147.1	151.0	167.9	184.8	180.0	127.6	211.8	130.9	182.8	157.4	
February	152.4	147.1	143.9	128.1	108.9	146.2	149.3	177.0	168.5	162.4	132.6	162.4	144.3	204.4	164.3	181.8	180.0	123.0	147.3	147.3	154.3	
March	155.9	150.7	147.0	131.3	111.6	178.1	164.3	190.3	173.2	155.1	144.9	165.2	146.2	113.3	167.9	193.9	183.3	125.3	147.1	140.0	138.1	
April	159.1	155.2	150.0	138.1	114.1	175.2	172.6	178.9	177.9	157.1	159.1	165.2	146.7	146.8	110.4	145.6	142.4	136.4	141.1	138.8	145.8	
May	160.6	157.6	150.5	138.1	115.7	171.4	171.4	197.0	177.9	153.9	136.5	143.0	113.9	167.9	184.8	183.3	120.9	120.9	120.9	120.9	151.6	
June	161.4	157.8	150.5	136.3	114.0	172.4	174.1	197.0	173.2	153.9	137.6	165.2	144.9	122.6	167.9	184.8	180.0	126.4	205.9	205.9	155.6	
July	166.1	163.7	153.5	140.6	115.7	186.7	180.4	202.2	171.8	156.1	138.9	165.6	144.3	154.8	169.6	193.9	183.3	124.1	152.9	152.9	151.4	
August	165.4	146.6	143.4	127.5	109.1	144.3	150.4	178.8	169.5	156.2	132.1	164.7	144.3	154.8	169.6	193.9	183.3	124.1	152.9	152.9	150.9	
September	163.8	159.6	152.0	137.5	114.9	192.4	183.0	204.1	170.1	156.2	141.3	166.5	153.8	141.3	167.9	190.9	180.0	126.0	170.8	170.8	160.4	
October	162.2	158.7	151.5	137.5	116.5	186.2	183.7	201.9	171.4	160.7	155.1	168.3	152.5	174.8	167.4	187.8	176.7	129.9	217.6	123.6	151.6	
November	158.8	154.3	149.0	138.1	115.7	171.4	171.4	197.0	177.9	153.9	136.5	143.0	113.9	167.9	184.8	180.0	126.4	211.8	130.9	175.2		
December	158.7	154.3	149.5	136.3	114.0	172.4	174.1	197.0	173.2	153.9	137.6	165.2	144.9	122.6	167.9	184.8	180.0	126.4	205.9	205.9	155.6	
1926, January	160.6	157.0	151.5	138.1	114.8	178.5	181.2	198.1	178.5	159.6	144.6	170.1	141.1	156.2	167.9	187.9	173.3	123.3	141.2	141.2	164.3	
February	159.8	156.1	148.0	138.1	120.7	172.9	181.1	199.3	182.6	159.6	142.3	169.7	140.5	127.0	167.9	190.9	173.3	133.3	133.3	133.3	164.3	
March	160.2	156.2	150.0	138.1	120.7	171.4	171.4	197.0	173.2	153.9	136.5	143.0	113.9	167.9	187.9	173.3	133.3	123.3	133.3	133.3	161.5	
April	161.8	157.8	152.5	139.4	121.5	182.4	179.6	202.6	190.1	156.2	132.9	165.2	136.1	111.0	167.9	187.9	173.3	134.5	132.9	132.9	159.9	
May	163.4	160.5	153.5	140.6	120.7	182.5	191.9	206.8	192.5	156.2	130.5	162.9	136.1	112.8	167.9	184.8	170.0	134.5	132.9	121.8	161.1	
June	163.4	162.2	154.7	142.9	120.7	188.7	190.1	201.7	192.5	156.2	131.3	163.0	131.3	106.3	167.9	184.8	170.0	134.5	204.1	204.1	159.7	
July	165.4	162.8	155.1	141.9	120.7	188.7	190.1	201.7	192.5	156.2	131.3	163.0	131.3	106.3	167.9	184.8	170.0	134.5	204.1	204.1	159.7	
August	164.6	162.3	153.5	140.6	118.2	192.9	181.2	199.6	184.0	156.1	130.8	161.1	144.9	112.0	167.9	181.8	170.0	134.5	204.1	204.1	159.7	
September	165.0	163.0	154.5	141.9	119.8	192.9	181.2	199.6	184.0	156.1	130.8	161.1	143.7	112.0	167.9	181.8	170.0	134.5	204.1	204.1	159.7	
October	165.3	163.4	154.5	142.9	120.7	182.5	190.1	202.6	184.0	156.2	131.3	163.0	131.3	106.3	167.9	184.8	170.0	134.5	204.1	204.1	159.7	
November	161.0	161.0	152.5	141.9	121.5	182.4	179.6	202.6	190.1	156.2	132.9	165.2	136.1	111.4	167.9	184.8	170.0	134.5	204.1	204.1	159.7	

TREND OF RETAIL PRICES OF FOOD IN THE UNITED STATES, JANUARY, 1917, TO NOVEMBER, 1926



Comparison of Retail Food Costs in 51 Cities

TABLE 6 shows for 39 cities the percentage of increase or decrease in the retail cost of food³ in November, 1926, compared with the average cost in the year 1913, in November, 1925, and in October, 1926. For 12 other cities comparisons are given for the one-year and the one-month periods. These cities have been scheduled by the bureau at different dates since 1913. These percentage changes are based on actual retail prices secured each month from retail dealers and on the average family consumption of these articles in each city.⁴

TABLE 6.—PERCENTAGE CHANGE IN THE RETAIL COST OF FOOD IN NOVEMBER, 1926, COMPARED WITH THE COST IN OCTOBER, 1926, NOVEMBER, 1925, AND WITH THE AVERAGE COST IN THE YEAR 1913, BY CITIES

City	Percent- age in- crease, Novem- ber, 1926, com- pared with 1913	Percent- age de- crease, Novem- ber, 1926, com- pared with Novem- ber, 1925	Percent- age in- crease, Novem- ber, 1926, com- pared with October, 1926	City	Percent- age in- crease, Novem- ber, 1926, com- pared with 1913	Percent- age de- crease, Novem- ber, 1926, com- pared with Novem- ber, 1925	Percent- age in- crease, Novem- ber, 1926, com- pared with October, 1926
Atlanta	66.1	1.0	0.2	Minneapolis	55.7	4.9	10.1
Baltimore	69.5	1.9	1.3	Mobile		1.7	0.1
Birmingham	67.0	2.5	0.9	Newark	56.3	2.3	1.4
Boston	65.3	3.2	2.8	New Haven	63.5	3.4	1.6
Bridgeport		2.7	1.7	New Orleans	57.1	2.9	0.0
Buffalo	68.5	2.7	2.5	New York	66.9	3.0	1.8
Butte		4.4	0.9	Norfolk		0.2	0.8
Charleston, S. C.	63.8	1.1	1.1	Omaha	58.2	3.5	0.1
Chicago	73.0	1.8	0.8	Peoria		2.6	1.0
Cincinnati	63.8	1.5	0.0	Philadelphia	67.7	2.0	2.0
Cleveland	63.1	0.2	0.4	Pittsburgh	66.0	1.3	2.4
Columbus		1.5	1.8	Portland, Me.		2.9	2.1
Dallas	57.5	1.2	1.2	Portland, Oreg.	41.2	5.6	10.3
Denver	46.9	3.6	1.8	Providence	64.4	3.4	1.7
Detroit	69.0	2.5	1.1	Richmond	70.2	3.1	10.1
Fall River	61.6	3.0	3.0	Rochester		2.3	2.6
Houston		3.3	0.5	St. Louis	65.2	2.4	0.9
Indianapolis	58.1	1.8	1.3	St. Paul		3.6	0.2
Jacksonville	62.0	2.1	10.8	Salt Lake City	38.0	3.7	0.5
Kansas City	57.0	4.3	0.0	San Francisco	55.9	5.9	0.2
Little Rock	54.4	1.0	1.6	Savannah		2.8	0.5
Los Angeles	48.6	5.3	0.1	Scranton	68.8	1.3	3.3
Louisville	58.4	4.3	1.1	Seattle	45.2	7.7	10.5
Manchester	59.5	3.1	1.5	Springfield, Ill.		2.3	2.3
Memphis	51.5	3.0	0.4	Washington, D. C.	71.5	1.2	0.2
Milwaukee	64.7	20.3	1.0				

¹ Decrease.

² Increase.

Effort has been made by the bureau each month to have all schedules for each city included in the average prices. For the month of November 98.2 per cent of all the firms supplying retail prices in the 51 cities sent in a report promptly. The following-named 33 cities had a perfect record; that is, every merchant who is cooperating with the bureau sent in his report in time for his prices to be included in the city averages:

Atlanta, Boston, Bridgeport, Buffalo, Butte, Chicago, Cincinnati, Columbus, Dallas, Detroit, Fall River, Houston, Indianapolis, Kansas

³ For list of articles see note 6, p. 100.

⁴ The consumption figures used from January, 1913, to December, 1920, for each article in each city are given in the Labor Review for November, 1918, pp. 94 and 95. The consumption figures which have been used for each month beginning with January, 1921, are given in the Labor Review for March, 1921, p. 26.

City, Los Angeles, Louisville, Manchester, Memphis, Milwaukee, Minneapolis, Newark, New Haven, Norfolk, Omaha, Portland, Me., Portland, Oreg., Providence, Richmond, Rochester, St. Paul, Scranton, Seattle, and Springfield, Ill.

The following summary shows the promptness with which the merchants responded in November, 1926:

RETAIL PRICE REPORTS RECEIVED FOR NOVEMBER, 1926

Item	United States	Geographic division				
		North Atlantic	South Atlantic	North Central	South Central	Western
Percentage of reports received.....	98.2	99.0	97.0	99.1	97.0	98.0
Number of cities in each section from which every report was received.....	33	11	3	11	4	4

Retail Prices of Coal in the United States^a

THE following table shows the average retail prices of coal on January 15 and July 15, 1913, November 15, 1925, and October 15 and November 15, 1926, for the United States and for each of the cities from which retail food prices have been obtained. The prices quoted are for coal delivered to consumers, but do not include charges for storing the coal in cellar or coal bin where an extra handling is necessary.

In addition to the prices for Pennsylvania anthracite, prices are shown for Colorado, Arkansas, and New Mexico anthracite in those cities where these coals form any considerable portion of the sales for household use.

The prices shown for bituminous coal are averages of prices of the several kinds sold for household use.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF COAL PER TON OF 2,000 POUNDS, FOR HOUSEHOLD USE, ON JANUARY 15 AND JULY 15, 1913, NOVEMBER 15, 1925, AND OCTOBER 15 AND NOVEMBER 15, 1926

City, and kind of coal	1913		1925	1926	
	Jan. 15	July 15	Nov. 15	Oct. 15	Nov. 15
United States:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove—					
Average price.....	\$7.99	\$7.46	(1)	\$16.56	\$15.64
Index (1913=100.0).....	103.4	96.6	(1)	201.4	202.4
Chestnut—					
Average price.....	\$8.15	\$7.68	(1)	\$15.31	\$15.41
Index (1913=100.0).....	103.0	97.0	(1)	193.5	194.7
Bituminous—					
Average price.....	\$5.48	\$5.39	\$9.71	\$9.59	\$10.24
Index (1913=100.0).....	100.8	99.2	178.6	176.4	188.4
Atlanta, Ga.: Bituminous.....	\$5.88	\$4.83	\$7.93	\$8.15	\$9.97
Baltimore, Md.: Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove.....	17.70	17.24	(1)	16.06	16.00
Chestnut.....	17.93	17.49	(1)	15.58	15.50
Bituminous.....			7.80	7.63	8.50

¹ Insufficient data.² Per ton of 2,240 pounds.

^a Prices of coal were formerly secured semiannually and published in the March and September issues. Since June, 1920, these prices have been secured and published monthly.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF COAL PER TON OF 2,000 POUNDS, FOR HOUSEHOLD USE, ON JANUARY 15 AND JULY 15, 1913, NOVEMBER 15, 1925, AND OCTOBER 15 AND NOVEMBER 15, 1926—Continued

City, and kind of coal	1913		1925		1926	
	Jan. 15	July 15	Nov. 15	Oct. 15	Nov. 15	
Birmingham, Ala.:						
Bituminous	\$4.22	\$4.01	\$7.50	\$7.63	\$7.90	
Boston, Mass.:						
Pennsylvania anthracite—						
Stove	8.25	7.50	17.00	16.40	16.50	Mil
Chestnut	8.25	7.75	17.00	16.15	16.25	Mil
Bridgeport, Conn.:						
Pennsylvania anthracite—						
Stove			16.00	15.00	15.75	Mil
Chestnut			16.00	15.00	15.75	Mil
Buffalo, N. Y.:						
Pennsylvania anthracite—						
Stove	6.75	6.54	(1)	13.75	13.76	Mo
Chestnut	6.99	6.80	(1)	13.39	13.39	Ne
Butte, Mont.:				11.02	11.03	11.03
Bituminous						
Charleston, S. C.:	2 6.75	2 6.75	11.00	11.00	11.00	Ne
Bituminous						
Chicago, Ill.:						
Pennsylvania anthracite—						
Stove	8.00	7.80	18.13	16.91	17.00	Ne
Chestnut	8.25	8.05	18.08	16.72	16.81	Ne
Bituminous	4.97	4.65	9.65	9.06	10.15	Ne
Cincinnati, Ohio:						
Bituminous						
Cleveland, Ohio:						
Pennsylvania anthracite—						
Stove	7.50	7.25	15.83	15.45	15.40	No
Chestnut	7.75	7.50	15.83	15.05	15.00	No
Bituminous	4.14	4.14	9.93	9.99	10.54	Om
Columbus, Ohio:						
Bituminous				7.72	7.82	9.16
Dallas, Tex.:						
Arkansas anthracite—						
Egg				16.83	15.67	Pet
Bituminous	8.25	7.21	13.72	13.33	13.22	Ph
Denver, Colo.:						
Colorado anthracite—						
Furnace, 1 and 2 mixed	8.88	9.00	16.00	16.00	16.00	Pit
Stove, 3 and 5 mixed	8.50	8.50	16.25	16.50	16.50	Pit
Bituminous	5.25	4.88	10.64	10.79	10.78	Pit
Detroit, Mich.:						
Pennsylvania anthracite—						
Stove	8.00	7.45	(1)	16.00	16.17	Po
Chestnut	8.25	7.65	(1)	15.50	15.83	Po
Bituminous	5.20	5.20	10.50	10.39	11.61	Po
Fall River, Mass.:						
Pennsylvania anthracite—						
Stove	8.25	7.43	17.21	16.75	16.75	Po
Chestnut	8.25	7.61	17.13	16.25	16.25	Po
Houston, Tex.:						
Bituminous				11.67	11.50	Pr
Indianapolis, Ind.:						
Bituminous						
Jacksonville, Fla.:						
Bituminous						
Kansas City, Mo.:						
Arkansas anthracite—						
Furnace				14.20	14.50	Re
Stove No. 4				15.83	15.67	Re
Bituminous	4.39	3.94	7.98	7.82	7.91	Re
Little Rock, Ark.:						
Arkansas anthracite—						
Egg				14.00	14.00	St
Bituminous	6.00	5.33	11.14	10.46	10.80	St
Los Angeles, Calif.:						
Bituminous						
Louisville, Ky.:						
Bituminous						
Manchester, N. H.:						
Pennsylvania anthracite—						
Stove	10.00	8.50	17.75	17.50	17.50	th
Chestnut	10.00	8.50	17.25	17.50	17.50	th
Memphis, Tenn.:						
Bituminous	3 4.34	3 4.22	7.51	7.26	8.46	

¹ Insufficient data.

² Per ton of 2,240 pounds.

³ Per 10-barrel lot (1,800 pounds).

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF COAL PER TON OF 2,000 POUNDS, FOR HOUSEHOLD USE, ON JANUARY 15 AND JULY 15, 1913, NOVEMBER 15, 1925, AND OCTOBER 15 AND NOVEMBER 15, 1926—Continued

City, and kind of coal	1913		1925	1926	
	Jan. 15	July 15	Nov. 15	Oct. 15	Nov. 15
Milwaukee, Wis.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove.....	\$8.00	\$7.85	\$16.80	\$16.80	\$16.80
Chestnut.....	8.25	8.10	16.66	16.65	16.65
Bituminous.....	6.25	5.71	11.27	10.36	11.38
Minneapolis, Minn.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove.....	9.25	9.05	18.10	18.10	18.10
Chestnut.....	9.50	9.30	18.07	17.95	17.95
Bituminous.....	5.89	5.79	11.47	11.34	11.66
Mobile, Ala.:					
Bituminous.....				9.69	9.69
Newark, N. J.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove.....	6.50	6.25	14.75	14.00	14.00
Chestnut.....	6.75	6.50	14.50	13.50	13.50
New Haven, Conn.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove.....	7.50	6.25	16.25	15.35	15.35
Chestnut.....	7.50	6.25	16.25	15.35	15.35
New Orleans, La.:					
Bituminous.....	6.06	6.06	10.61	10.29	10.79
New York, N. Y.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove.....	7.07	6.66	20.50	14.75	14.75
Chestnut.....	7.14	6.80	19.63	14.50	14.50
Norfolk, Va.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove.....			17.00	16.00	16.00
Chestnut.....			17.00	16.00	16.00
Bituminous.....			10.43	9.66	10.39
Omaha, Nebr.:					
Bituminous.....	6.63	6.13	10.08	10.02	10.29
Peoria, Ill.:					
Bituminous.....			7.04	6.94	7.46
Philadelphia, Pa.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove.....	7.16	6.89	16.00	15.79	15.79
Chestnut.....	7.38	7.14	16.20	15.54	15.54
Pittsburgh, Pa.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Chestnut.....	8.00	7.44	(1)	15.13	15.38
Bituminous.....	3.16	3.18	6.13	5.74	7.23
Portland, Me.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove.....			16.56	16.80	16.80
Chestnut.....			16.56	16.80	16.80
Portland, Oreg.:					
Bituminous.....	9.79	9.66	13.24	13.52	13.46
Providence, R. I.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove.....	8.25	7.50	16.67	16.25	16.50
Chestnut.....	8.25	7.75	16.67	16.00	16.50
Richmond, Va.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove.....	8.00	7.25	(1)	16.17	16.67
Chestnut.....	8.00	7.25	(1)	16.17	16.67
Bituminous.....	5.50	4.94	11.39	10.96	11.91
Rochester, N. Y.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove.....			14.50	14.60	14.60
Chestnut.....			14.15	14.15	14.15
St. Louis, Mo.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove.....	8.44	7.74	17.20	16.95	17.33
Chestnut.....	8.68	7.99	16.95	16.70	17.08
Bituminous.....	3.36	3.04	6.53	6.42	7.19

¹ Insufficient data.

² Per ton of 2,240 pounds.

³ Per 10-barrel lot (1,800 pounds).

⁴ Per 25-bushel lot (1,900 pounds).

⁵ 50 cents per ton additional is charged for "binning." Most customers require binning or basketing the coal into the cellar.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF COAL PER TON OF 2,000 POUNDS, FOR HOUSEHOLD USE, ON JANUARY 15 AND JULY 15, 1913, NOVEMBER 15, 1925, AND OCTOBER 15 AND NOVEMBER 15, 1926—Continued

City, and kind of coal	1913		1925		1926	
	Jan. 15	July 15	Nov. 15	Oct. 15	Nov. 15	
St. Paul, Minn.:						
Pennsylvania anthracite—						
Stove	\$9.20	\$9.05	\$18.10	\$18.10	\$18.10	\$18.10
Chestnut	9.45	9.30	18.04	17.95	17.95	17.95
Bituminous	6.07	6.04	11.88	11.63	11.63	12.00
Salt Lake City, Utah:						
Colorado anthracite—						
Furnace, 1 and 2 mixed	11.00	11.50	18.00	18.00	18.00	18.00
Stove, 3 and 5 mixed	11.00	11.50	18.00	18.00	18.00	18.00
Bituminous	5.64	5.46	8.41	8.47	8.47	8.46
San Francisco, Calif.:						
New Mexico anthracite—						
Cerillos egg	17.00	17.00	25.50	25.50	25.50	25.50
Colorado anthracite—						
Egg	17.00	17.00	25.00	25.00	25.00	25.00
Bituminous	12.00	12.00	16.61	16.61	16.61	16.67
Savannah, Ga.:						
Bituminous						
Scranton, Pa.:						
Pennsylvania anthracite—						
Stove	4.25	4.31	(1)	11.00	11.00	11.00
Chestnut	4.50	4.56	(1)	10.67	10.67	10.67
Seattle, Wash.:						
Bituminous						
Springfield, Ill.:						
Bituminous						
Washington, D. C.:						
Pennsylvania anthracite—						
Stove	3 7.50	3 7.38	3 15.92	3 15.88	3 15.95	3 15.95
Chestnut	3 7.65	3 7.53	3 15.75	3 15.53	3 15.59	3 15.59
Bituminous—						
Prepared sizes, low volatile						
Prepared sizes, high volatile						
Run of mine, mixed						

¹ Insufficient data.

² Per ton of 2,240 pounds.

³ All coal sold in Savannah is weighed by the city. A charge of 10 cents per ton or half ton is made. This additional charge has been included in the above prices.

Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices in November, 1926

THE general level of wholesale prices in November was below that of October, according to information collected in representative markets by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the United States Department of Labor. The bureau's weighted index number, which includes 404 commodities or price series, registered 148.1 for November as compared with 149.7 for the month before, a decline of 1 per cent. Compared with November, 1925, with an index number of 157.7, there was a decrease of over 6 per cent.

The prices of farm products in general were over 3 per cent lower than in October, due mainly to declines in prices of corn, wheat, cattle, hogs, cotton, and hides. Foods and clothing materials also were slightly lower in price, as were chemicals and drugs and miscellaneous commodities. Practically no change was shown for metals and house-furnishing goods, but fuels and building materials were higher.

Of the 404 commodities or price series for which comparable information for October and November was collected, increases were shown in 76 instances and decreases in 143 instances. In 185 instances no change in price was reported.

INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES BY GROUPS OF COMMODITIES

[1913 = 100.0]

Commodity group	November, 1925	1926	
		October	November
Farm products	153.9	138.4	134.6
Foods	160.2	152.0	151.1
Clothing materials	187.9	171.5	169.9
Fuels	174.8	184.4	190.2
Metals and metal products	129.8	126.7	126.5
Building materials	175.6	172.1	174.0
Chemicals and drugs	135.4	129.3	128.5
House-furnishing goods	165.9	160.3	159.9
Miscellaneous	142.0	118.6	117.7
All commodities	157.7	149.7	148.1
Raw materials ¹	159.8	152.4	150.1
Producers' goods ²	135.0	127.1	126.1
Consumers' goods ³	168.1	159.8	158.7

¹ Revised.² Federal Reserve Board grouping.

Comparing prices in November with those of a year ago, as measured by changes in the index numbers, it is seen that large decreases took place in farm products, clothing materials, and miscellaneous commodities, with smaller decreases in foods, metals, chemicals and drugs, and house-furnishing goods. A slight decrease was shown for building materials, while fuels averaged nearly 9 per cent higher than in the corresponding month of last year.



Comparison of Retail Price Changes in the United States and in Foreign Countries

THE principal index numbers of retail prices published by foreign countries have been brought together with those of this bureau in the subjoined table after having been reduced in most cases to a common base, namely, prices for July, 1914, equal 100. This base was selected instead of the average for the year 1913, which is used in other tables of index numbers compiled by the bureau, because of the fact that in numerous instances satisfactory information for 1913 was not available. A part of the countries shown in the table now publish index numbers of retail prices on the July, 1914, base. In such cases, therefore, the index numbers are reproduced as published. For other countries the index numbers here shown have been obtained by dividing the index for each month specified in the table by the index for July, 1914, or the nearest period thereto as published in the original sources. As stated in the table, the number of articles included in the index numbers for the different countries differs widely. These results, which are designed merely to show price trends and not actual differences in the several countries, should not, therefore, be considered as closely comparable with one another. In certain instances, also, the figures are not absolutely comparable from month to month over the entire period, owing to slight changes in the list of commodities and the localities included on successive dates.

INDEX NUMBERS OF RETAIL PRICES IN THE UNITED STATES AND IN OTHER COUNTRIES

Country...	United States	Canada	Belgium	Czecho-slovakia	Denmark	Finland	France (except Paris)	France (Paris)	Germany
Number of localities...	51	60	59	Entire country	100	21	320	1	71
Commodities included...	43 foods	29 foods	56 (foods, etc.)	29 foods	Foods	36 foods	13 (11 foods)	13 (11 foods)	Foods
Computing agency...	Bureau of Labor Statistics	Department of Labor	Ministry of Industry and Labor	Office of Statistics	Government Statistical Department	Central Bureau of Statistics	Ministry of Labor	Ministry of Labor	Federal Statistical Bureau
Base = 100.	July, 1914	July, 1914	April, 1914	July, 1914	July, 1914	January-June, 1914	August, 1914	July, 1914	October, 1913-July, 1914
<i>Year and month</i>									
1923									
Jan.	141	142	383		180	1108		309	
Feb.	139	142	397			1103	331	316	
Mar.	139	145	408			1096		321	
Apr.	140	143	409			1047		320	
May.	140	140	413			1016	337	325	
June.	141	138	419			1004		331	
July.	144	137	429		188	1003		321	
Aug.	143	142	439			1087	349	328	
Sept.	146	141	453			1103		339	
Oct.	147	144	458			1140		349	
Nov.	148	144	463			1133	373	355	
Dec.	147	145	470			1112		365	
1924									
Jan.	146	145	480	836	194	1089		376	127
Feb.	144	145	495	838		1070	400	384	117
Mar.	141	143	510	830		1067		392	120
Apr.	138	137	498	829		1035		380	123
May.	138	133	485	825		1037	393	378	126
June.	139	133	492	833		1040		370	120
July.	140	134	493	837	200	1052		360	126
Aug.	141	137	498	842		1125	400	366	122
Sept.	144	139	503	853		1125		374	125
Oct.	145	139	513	877		1156		383	134
Nov.	147	141	520	889		1160	426	396	135
Dec.	148	143	521	890		1160		404	135
1925									
Jan.	151	145	521	899	215	1130		408	137
Feb.	148	147	517	911		1120	440	410	145
Mar.	148	145	511	904		1152		415	146
Apr.	148	142	506	901		1137		409	144
May.	148	141	502	894		1097	434	418	141
June.	152	141	505	914		1101		422	146
July.	156	141	509	916	210	1145		421	151
Aug.	157	146	517	894		1222	451	423	154
Sept.	156	146	525	884		1187		431	153
Oct.	158	147	533	875		1165		433	151
Nov.	164	151	534	863		1164	471	444	147
Dec.	162	156	534	866		1138		403	146
1926									
Jan.	161	157	527	854	177	1090		480	143
Feb.	158	155	526	845		1106	503	495	142
Mar.	156	154	521	832		1100		497	141
Apr.	159	153	529	832		1085		503	142
May.	158	152	558	837		1078	523	522	142
June.	156	149	579	861		1090		544	143
July.	154	149	637	876	159	1105		574	145
August.	152	150	681	878		1153	610	587	146
Sept.	155	147	684	878		1137		590	144

COMPARISON OF RETAIL PRICE CHANGES

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INDEX NUMBERS OF RETAIL PRICES IN THE UNITED STATES AND IN OTHER COUNTRIES—Continued

Country--	Italy	Nether- lands	Norway	Sweden	Switzer- land	United King dom	South Africa	India (Bom- bay)	Aus- tralia	New- Zeal- and
Number of localities--	47	6	31	49	33	630	9	1	30	25
Commodities included--	20 foods and charcoal	29 (27 foods)	Foods	50 (43 foods, 7 fuel and light)	Foods	21 foods	24 foods	17 foods	46 foods and groceries	59 foods
Computing agency--	Ministry of National Economy	Central Bureau of Statistics	Central Bureau of Statistics	Social Board	Labor Office (Revised)	Ministry of Labor	Office of Census and Statistics	Labor Office (Revised)	Bureau of Census and Statistics	Census and Statistics Office
Base=100--	1913	January-June, 1914	July, 1914	July, 1914	July, 1914	July, 1914	1914	July, 1914	July, 1914	July, 1914
Year and month										
1923										
Jan.	542	148	214	166	160	175	117	151	145	139
Feb.	527	149	214	165	158	173	117	150	144	140
Mar.	524	149	214	166	159	171	117	149	145	141
Apr.	530	149	212	163	161	168	117	150	152	142
May	535	147	214	161	164	162	118	148	156	143
June	532	145	213	161	166	160	118	146	162	142
July	518	145	218	160	166	162	116	148	164	142
Aug.	512	143	220	161	166	165	115	149	165	143
Sept.	514	142	218	165	167	168	115	149	161	145
Oct.	517	145	217	165	167	172	117	147	157	146
Nov.	526	149	221	164	171	173	120	147	157	147
Dec.	528	149	226	164	172	176	118	152	156	147
1924										
Jan.	527	150	230	163	173	175	120	154	155	150
Feb.	529	151	234	162	172	177	122	151	153	149
Mar.	523	152	241	162	171	176	122	147	152	150
Apr.	527	152	240	159	169	167	122	143	150	150
May	530	151	241	159	169	163	122	143	151	150
June	543	151	240	158	170	160	120	147	149	150
July	538	150	248	159	170	162	117	151	148	148
Aug.	534	150	257	163	170	164	117	156	147	146
Sept.	538	152	261	165	170	166	117	156	146	145
Oct.	556	154	264	172	174	172	120	156	146	145
Nov.	583	156	269	172	175	179	122	157	147	148
Dec.	601	157	274	172	175	180	121	156	148	150
1925										
Jan.	609	156	277	170	172	178	120	152	148	147
Feb.	609	157	283	170	172	176	120	152	149	146
Mar.	610	157	284	171	171	176	121	155	151	149
Apr.	606	155	276	170	169	170	124	153	152	149
May	600	154	265	169	168	167	123	151	154	150
June	602	152	261	169	169	166	122	149	155	149
July	605	152	260	169	169	167	120	152	156	151
Aug.	619	152	254	170	169	168	119	147	156	152
Sept.	642	152	241	168	170	170	118	146	156	153
Oct.	645	149	228	166	168	172	119	148	157	155
Nov.	652	149	223	165	168	172	117	149	156	156
Dec.	653	148	221	164	167	174	116	151	155	154
1926										
Jan.	658	148	216	162	165	171	116	151	155	154
Feb.	649	147	212	160	163	168	117	150	154	153
Mar.	636	147	205	159	161	165	118	151	159	152
Apr.	633	146	198	158	161	159	119	150	163	151
May	643	146	195	157	159	158	119	150	163	151
June	647	146	194	157	159	158	118	152	162	151
July	645	146	198	156	159	161	117	155	159	149
Aug.	648	146	196	156	157	161	117	153	157	150
Sept.	656	149	193	157	158	162	117	152	155	148

Cost of Living in Peking, China¹

A COMPARISON of the 1924 standard of living in Peking, China, with that of previous years has been made recently, which shows some of the economic problems of Peking workers during the past 25 years. This study is the first of the kind to be made; and although it covers only a small part of the field, and that not exhaustively, it is considered sufficiently complete to furnish the basis for at least tentative conclusions.

The standard of living studied is that of the Peking laborers—artisans and coolies—whose wages are \$160 or less a year. The period from 1900 to 1924 was chosen for the study, as a 25-year period was considered sufficiently long to bring out possible long-time and perhaps periodic price fluctuations. It is the custom to keep account books in Peking stores over a long period of years, some stores having complete sets of account books covering more than 100 years, and it was this custom which made this study possible. The greatest problem was found to be to induce the store managers to allow the use of their account books, as many managers consider it an insult to be asked to show them, and even the owners are allowed to see the books only when the manager of the store makes his report to them. It was necessary, therefore, to overcome a certain amount of suspicion on the part of the managers, who found it very difficult to understand why anyone should want to study old accounts.

Prices secured from various sources included wholesale and retail prices of various grains and flour, coal, and cloth, while cost-of-living indexes were computed based on several budgetary studies which had been made in Peking.

One of the largest items in the diet of the Peking workingman is a flour made of a mixture of yellow bean flour and millet flour with the addition, in the cheaper grades, of corn flour, rice being a less important article of his diet on account of its cost. Pork and mutton are both eaten by the working people, although many of them have meat only on special feast days. A great variety of oils, sauces, and condiments are used in Chinese cooking, but workmen, because of the cost, use ordinarily only sesamum oil or peanut oil, salt, a salty yellow sauce made from beans, and salt turnip.

Most of the clothing worn by Peking workers is made in the home or is secondhand, so that the cost of clothing is in general the cost of the cloth.

The fuel used is coal dust made into a kind of briquet.

Price Fluctuations

STUDY of price fluctuations of grains and cereals in Peking shows that the Peking prices depend largely upon the weather, the character of the harvest, and the means of transportation. The political events of the period—the Boxer rebellion, the deposition and attempted restoration of the Emperor, the establishment of the Republic, and three civil wars—have all influenced prices through their effects on the harvest and on transportation.

¹ Prices, wages, and the standard of living in Peking, 1900-1924, by T. P. Meng and S. D. Gamble. Special supplement to the Chinese Social and Political Science Review, July, 1926.

The price of wheat flour in December, 1924, averaged \$8.27² per hundred catties,³ which was 42 per cent higher than in January, 1900, and 49 per cent more than the average price in 1913. The price of rice averaged \$9 per 100 catties in December, 1924, which was 53 per cent higher than in 1913. The average price of pork in 1924 was \$19 per 100 catties, as compared with \$9.45 in 1900, while mutton in 1924 cost \$16 per 100 catties. The condiments used in cooking also showed the same upward trend. The prices of all these commodities showed decided fluctuations during the 25-year period, wholesale prices showing in general more decided changes than retail prices.

The price of coal varied considerably, but there was a steady decline from 1910 to 1917. In 1924 it rose rapidly, and in December it was \$5.80 per thousand catties, which was the highest price in 25 years, and by the end of 1925 the price had reached \$7.

Cost of Living

THE distribution of the different items of the family budget as determined by a combination of seven different budgetary studies which have been made in Peking was as follows: Food, 70 per cent; clothing, 12 per cent; rent, 8 per cent; light and fuel, 5 per cent; and miscellaneous, 5 per cent. In computing the index numbers, 1913 was taken as the base in order to bring the study in line with cost-of-living studies in other countries. One of the most striking facts brought out was the similarity in the trend of retail prices in the United States and China for the years 1901 to 1914, the index numbers being nearly equal in the two countries for that period. No comparisons can be made after 1914, on account of the effect of the European war. The cost-of-living index number in China was under 100 most of the time from 1913 to 1920 and only reached 144 in the latter part of 1924.

Wages

ANY study of wages in China involves consideration of rates of exchange because of the variations in the value of the currency. Workmen are paid in coppers. Throughout the period the copper exchange showed a constant depreciation, the number of coppers per dollar averaging 76.4 in 1900 and 285.5 in 1925. It is inevitable that such depreciation in the currency should be a burden on the working people, who at the best are seldom able to secure increases which more than offset the changes in the value of the money.

The wages of masons, carpenters, and sawyers were studied as representative of a large group of skilled workers, and the wages of coolies as representative of the unskilled. Until the fall of 1924, the workers were paid in coppers but the depreciation at that time had become so rapid that increases in wages had not kept pace with the falling value of the copper money. At that time the guilds decided that their wages should be put on a silver basis in order to avoid this constant loss. In terms of silver the wages of skilled workers were 39.3 cents a day in 1900 and 70 cents in 1925, while the wages of coolies were 28.8 cents and 45 cents, respectively. These wages

² Mexican dollar equals approximately 50 cents in United States currency; the exchange rate varies.

³ 100 catties = 133½ pounds.

include the actual wage, a food allowance, and a commission paid to the man in charge of the workmen, which amounted to 10 cents in the fall of 1924.

Conclusions

IN SUMMING up the results of the study it is said that there is an evident tendency to fix the wages of the unskilled workers, even though they are controlled by the guild, at about the subsistence minimum. Although the wages of skilled building workers are about 70 per cent more than those of the unskilled, they still have a difficult economic problem to meet as they have at least four months of unemployment on account of weather conditions. The wages of the unskilled are so low that a large proportion of the men are unmarried while the income of those who are married must be supplemented by the earnings of other members of the family or by charity. In spite of living so close to the subsistence minimum, however, it is said that the majority of the workers would rather decrease their hours of work than improve the standard of living.

LABOR AGREEMENTS, AWARDS, AND DECISIONS

Labor Agreements

Building Trades—Chicago

THE Building Construction Employers' Association and the Building Trades Council of Chicago have decided upon a new form of contract to take the place of the standard agreement drawn up in 1923, which expired in the spring of 1926. The new agreement practically establishes the union shop among its signatories and ends the difficulty over the Landis award. It will cover all the building trades, except the carpenters, whose union is not a member of the Building Trades Council.

The agreement does not fix wages or hours, leaving these to be settled in the negotiations with the separate trades. The preamble states that it is entered into "to prevent strikes and lockouts and to facilitate peaceful adjustment of grievances and disputes between employer and employee in this trade and to prevent waste and unnecessary and avoidable delays and expense, and for the further purpose of at all times securing for the employer sufficient skilled workmen and so far as possible to provide for labor continuous employment."

The agreement sets forth the accepted principles as to there being no limit to be set upon the amount of work a man may do in a day, no restriction on the use of machinery, no restriction upon materials except those which are prison made, no interference with workmen during working hours, no prohibition of the use of apprentices, and the recognition of the foreman as the agent of the employer. Its most important features are its acceptance of arbitration as its fundamental principle, and its provision for the union shop. Arbitration is dealt with at length. The first article declares that the two parties to the agreement "hereby agree that there shall be no lockout by the party of the first part, or strikes, stoppages, or the abandonment of the work, either individually or collectively, by concerted or separate action by the party of the second part, without arbitration of the matter in dispute as hereinafter provided." This statement is elaborated elsewhere.

ARTICLE II. The parties hereto hereby agree that, in manner herein set forth they will submit to arbitration all grievances and disputes that may arise between them and any misunderstanding as to the meaning or intent of all, or any part, of this agreement; and they further agree that work will go on undisturbed during such arbitration, and that the decision of the arbitrators shall be final and binding on the parties hereto.

ART. VII, PARAGRAPH 1. This is an arbitration agreement and the intention of this agreement is that all disputes must be arbitrated and that the decision of the arbitrators shall be final and binding upon the parties hereto, and that there shall be no abandonment of the work during such arbitration.

Provision is made for selecting a joint arbitration board, and its composition, its powers, the selection of an umpire, and the method

of conducting proceedings before it in case of a disagreement are given in much detail. One provision is apparently reminiscent of the trouble which arose from an earlier arbitration proceeding:

PARAGRAPH 7. It is not the intention of this agreement that the umpire shall take part in wage negotiations except by mutual consent of both parties hereto.

The provision which practically unionizes the shops of contractors signing the agreement is explicit.

ARTICLE III, PARAGRAPH 2. This agreement shall not be construed to require the members of the party of the second part to work with nonunion workmen engaged in building construction, nor to work for members of the party of the first part on any building or job for any firm or person having construction work done in Cook County by nonunion workmen, provided the union of the trade in which such nonunion men are working is a member of the Chicago Building Trades Council which has a similar agreement with a recognized association of employers. However, members of the party of the second part shall not leave the work for at least 48 hours after the facts, with conclusive proof thereof, shall first have been filed with the joint conference board.

PARAGRAPH 3. Should a union abandon its work without first submitting the cause to an arbitration as provided herein, or should its members individually or collectively or by separate or concerted action, leave the work, the employer shall have the right to fill the places of such men with workmen who will agree to work for him, and the party of the second part shall not have the right to strike or abandon the work, as provided in paragraph 2 of Article III, because of the employment of such workers.

It is provided that no worker shall leave his work because non-union men are employed on the building or job in some line of work other than building construction and also that if the unions are unable to furnish the skilled men needed after 48 hours' notice, the employer shall have the right to take any workers available and the union shall issue weekly permits to these men until such time as they can themselves furnish the workers needed.

The agreement is to run until June 1, 1929.

Awards and Decisions

Eastern Railroads—Conductors and Trainmen

THE decision of the arbitrators in the Eastern trainmen's case was announced December 1, 1926. This was in relation to an increase of wages and certain rules governing work and pay of conductors, baggagemen, flagmen, and brakemen members of the Order of Railway Conductors and of the Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen, employed on 50 railroads in the eastern part of the United States.

Demands for the increases had been submitted to the employers several months prior to the enactment of the railway labor law of 1926, and on the enactment of this law the processes therein provided for were adopted. First, an attempt to settle the controversy through the agency of boards of adjustment, representing the two parties, and this failing, the second proviso of mediation by the United States Board of Mediation was resorted to. This in turn was not successful, but an agreement to arbitrate was secured. Arbitrators were selected by the two groups; the neutral arbitrators selected by these arbitrators, however, declined the appointment. The neutral members were thereupon appointed by the board of mediation.

The board organized October 27 last, and examined the evidence offered. The men had asked for an increase in pay averaging about 19 per cent. The board awarded them an increase of 7½ per cent over the rates in effect November 30, 1926, the increase to date from December 1, 1926. The two representatives of the railroad filed a dissenting opinion in regard to the amount of increase. The award and the dissenting opinion follow:

REPORT AND AWARD OF ARBITRATORS

This board of arbitration was created under and in accordance with the provisions of the railway labor act, approved May 20, 1926, for the purpose of arbitrating questions of rates of pay and certain rules governing work and pay upon which the Order of Railway Conductors, representing the conductors, and the Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen, representing the other trainmen and the yardmen, and the railroads of the eastern district were unable to agree. The railroad companies were represented by a conference committee of managers, duly authorized to act for them. A list of the railroads so represented is included in the agreement to arbitrate.

The railroads selected as arbitrators R. V. Massey and William A. Baldwin. The employees selected E. P. Curtis and D. L. Cease. The United States Board of Mediation appointed William D. Baldwin and Edgar E. Clark.

The matters to be arbitrated were requests for increased rates of pay and working rules as follows:

<i>Passenger service</i>			
	Mile	Day	Month
Conductors	\$0. 05166	\$7. 75	\$232. 50
Assistant conductors and ticket collectors	. 0456	6. 84	205. 20
Baggagemen handling express, dynamo and Government mail	. 04786	7. 18	215. 40
Baggagemen handling dynamo and express	. 0456	6. 84	205. 20
Baggagemen handling dynamo and Government mail	. 0456	6. 84	205. 20
Baggagemen handling express and Government mail	. 0456	6. 84	205. 20
Baggagemen handling either dynamo, express, or Government mail	. 04333	6. 50	195. 00
Baggagemen	. 041	6. 16	184. 80
Flagmen and brakemen	. 04	6. 00	180. 00

NOTE.—Where flagmen or brakemen are required to handle baggage, express, dynamo, and Government mail, or either of them, the same differential as applies to baggagemen will be added to their rates.

For service paid local or way freight rates under schedules now in effect the rates shall be as follows:

	Mile	Day
Conductors	\$0. 0774	\$7. 74
Brakemen	. 0624	6. 24

For service paid the through freight rates under schedules now in effect the rates shall be as follows:

	Mile	Day
Conductors	\$0. 0734	\$7. 34
Brakemen	. 0584	5. 84

Yard service

	Day
Car retarder operator	\$8. 44
Foremen	7. 64
Helpers	7. 16
Switchtenders	5. 72

Other service

1. The same increases shall apply to milk, mixed, work, miscellaneous, or any service not enumerated as are applied to the service in which they are now classified. Where there is a separate rate for milk, mixed, work, miscellaneous, or

other service it shall be increased in the same amount of money compared with rates in effect this date as the freight or passenger rate, according to the overtime basis on which it is calculated.

2. All rates of pay in excess of standard rates and all mountain, desert, or other differentials to be maintained—that is, the same amount of money now paid in excess of standard rates to be paid in excess of rates which may be agreed upon.

3. The adoption of the rates suggested shall in no case operate to bring about a reduction in compensation now paid.

4. Literal application of the following language "In all classes of service trainmen's time will commence at the time they are required to report for duty and shall continue until the time they are relieved from duty."

A through freight train is one that neither sets off nor picks up cars nor loads or unloads freight en route, nor does station switching. On all other freight trains trainmen shall be paid not less than local or way freight rates.

6. Not less than one brakeman shall be assigned to every passenger train of two or more cars or on other passenger trains of less than two cars that carry either baggage, mail, or express matter for distribution.

7. All rates and rules herein enumerated to be effective as of January 1, 1926, except where agreements in effect have been made to a later date.

The board met and organized on October 27, 1926. Hearings at which evidence was presented and received began on October 28 and continued until and including November 10. The parties were heard in oral argument on November 12.

The railroads estimate that the requests of the employees would, if granted in full, equal an increase of 19 per cent in their pay, which would amount to \$38,000,000 per annum.

All facts, conditions, and circumstances relied upon in support of the proposals of the employees were presented and replied to in evidence and in argument. It is not contended that these railroads can not afford to bear some increase in the wages of these employees.

After full consideration of all of the conditions and circumstances presented in the record, and of the peculiar, exacting, hazardous, and responsible character of the services performed by these employees, the board adjudges and awards as follows:

The standard rates of pay per mile, per day, and per month for conductors, assistant conductors, ticket collectors, train baggagemen, train flagmen, and brakemen in passenger service; for conductors and brakemen in local or way freight service; for conductors and brakemen in through freight service; for yard conductors or foremen; for yard brakemen or helpers; and for switchtenders shall be increased $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent over the rates in effect on November 30, 1926.

In applying the $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent increase the daily rates will be used as bases. Mileage rates will be determined by dividing the new daily rates by 150 and 100 for passenger and freight service, respectively, and monthly rates will be determined by multiplying the new daily rates by 30.

Car retarder operators shall be paid 80 cents per day more than the rate herein fixed for yard conductors or foremen.

Train baggagemen required to handle express shall be paid 34 cents per day more than the rate per day herein fixed for train baggagemen.

Train baggagemen required to handle United States mail shall be paid 34 cents per day more than the rate per day herein fixed for train baggagemen.

Train baggagemen required to handle both express and United States mail shall be paid 68 cents per day more than the rate per day herein fixed for train baggagemen.

Train baggagemen required to handle dynamo shall be paid 34 cents per day more than the rate per day herein fixed for train baggagemen.

Train baggagemen required to handle dynamo and express or United States mail shall be paid 68 cents per day more than the rate per day herein fixed for train baggagemen. If required to handle dynamo and express and United States mail he shall be paid \$1.02 more per day than the rate per day herein fixed for train baggagemen.

The extra allowance for baggagemen handling United States mail will not apply when the amount of such mail handled does not exceed in volume between any two points that provided for the minimum space that can be authorized by the Post Office Department, viz, 3 feet or its equivalent, 54 sacks or pieces. Loading United States mail into car, storing it in car, sorting it en route, or unloading it at intermediate or terminal points will constitute "handling" under this rule. The extra allowance for handling United States mail will not apply

when "storage" mail is in charge of the baggageman, provided he is not required to "handle" it.

The extra allowances for handling dynamo, express, and/or United States mail by train baggagemen will apply to other trainmen who may be assigned regularly or temporarily to that work.

On the adoption of the above award covering rates of pay W. D. Baldwin, Clark, Curtis, and Cease voted in the affirmative. Massey and W. A. Baldwin voted in the negative.

On the proposed rules submitted the board adjudges and awards as follows:

Rule 1 shall read:

"The same increases shall apply to milk, mixed, work, miscellaneous, or any service not enumerated as are applied to the service in which they are now classified. Where there is a separate rate for milk, mixed, work, miscellaneous, or other service it shall be increased in the same amount of money compared with rates in effect on November 30, 1926, as the freight or passenger rate, according to the overtime basis on which it is calculated."

Rule 2 shall read:

"All rates of pay in excess of standard rates, including daily and monthly guarantees, and all mountain, desert, or other differentials shall be maintained; that is, the same amount of money now paid in excess of standard rates shall be paid in excess of rates which are herein awarded."

Rule 3 shall read:

"The adoption of the rates herein awarded shall in no case operate to bring about a reduction in rates now paid."

Rule 4: The request submitted under this head is for enforcement of a rule that is very general in the pay schedules of these railroads. It is not suggested that the language of the rule is ambiguous nor is any change in the wording of the rule sought. The board is not clothed with police powers to enforce this or any other pay schedule rule.

Rule 5 shall read:

"Trainmen in through or irregular freight service required to pick up and/or set off a car or cars at four (4) or more points during any one trip or tour of duty will be paid local freight rates for the entire service performed. Stops made (1) at first point to pick up cars other than cabin or caboose, and at last point to set off cars other than cabin or caboose; (2) at foreign line junction points, not exceeding four in number, when interchange cars only are picked up and/or set off; (3) for setting off defective cars; (4) doubling hills; (5) for setting out cars or picking up cars (but not setting out and picking up at the same point) for the purpose of adjusting the tonnage of the train to established engine ratings, will not be counted as stops under this rule."

"Except as provided in (5) a stop covers picking up and/or setting off cars at one point between the time train is stopped and the entire train is coupled up and ready to start."

"Trainmen required to load or unload freight or to do station switching will be paid local or way freight rates. Switching necessary in picking up cars will not be considered 'station switching.' Switching for the purpose of placing at loading or unloading places cars other than cars loaded with livestock or highly perishable freight will be considered 'station switching.' If, in order to set out car or cars clear of main line, it is necessary to move from 'spot' a car or cars that are set for loading or unloading, such car or cars will be replaced on 'spot' and so doing will not be considered 'station switching.'"

Rule 6: This request is denied.

Rule 7: The rates of pay and the rules embraced in this award shall be made effective as of December 1, 1926.

On the adoption of the rules above awarded, the vote of the board was unanimous, except that W. A. Baldwin voted no on Rule 2.

DISSENTING OPINION

While conceding that the peculiar characteristics of the work of train service employees, as to the elements of responsibility, hazard and away-from-home expense differentiate them from other classes of employees, this situation has been invariably recognized and compensated in previous arbitration awards and adjustments, and we hold that evidence and argument utterly failed to support any claims of unfavorable change of conditions or bring forth new factors that would justify increased rates of pay at this time.

The employees endeavored to show that as a result of the increasing number of cars in a train, there is additional responsibility of a hazard to the train employees—whereas testimony supported by official records compiled by the Interstate Commerce Commission was presented by the carriers showing that in the eastern territory the average train length has increased but 4.3 cars from 1920 to the end of 1925; that much of this moderate increase has resulted from substitution of more powerful locomotives on those parts of the roads that have the most unfavorable grades; and that the present average trains of such districts are far below the average train handled for many years by the smaller locomotives on the so-called level districts; that such additional responsibility, if any, from added units to the average train is more than offset by the improved standards of rolling equipment and track design, maintenance, and inspection; by automatic block signals and additional main and passing tracks that reduce delays and necessity for train orders; by the use of telephones in substitution for the telegraph; by automatic train control, modern interlocking at railroad crossings and main track connections; and, finally, omitting much more that is equally important and obvious—by the decreased average time to complete a freight run.

That these improved facilities have decreased the occupational hazard of employees in train service is evident, and this is clearly set forth in the official statistics of the Interstate Commerce Commission which show that in the period during which the train length has increased, there has been a marked and consistent decrease in the casualty ratio.

As to the claim that increased productivity of the individual resulting from longer and heavier trains and increased train speed warrants additional compensation—it was shown that the carriers of the eastern district have since 1921 expended approximately \$928,000,000 for heavier locomotives, improved car equipment, grade reductions, additional main and running tracks, automatic signals and train controls, heavier rails, better ballast, improved interlocking, grade crossing eliminations, fuel and labor saving devices, improved terminal facilities, all contributing to increased efficiency in operation and service without additional effort or burden to these employees; and that from such savings as have resulted, these employees are now getting a liberal share as compared with the investors.

There has been such a remarkable improvement to the plants and in the financial results of these eastern carriers since the return to private operation in 1920, that the public generally, and many of the employees, are misled to the belief that the railroads have been enjoying unprecedented prosperity and are in a position to make liberal concessions in many ways, without jeopardizing their ability to provide efficient transportation service. That this is far from the fact is indicated by the evidence in this case.

The eastern carriers in 1925 earned 5.13 per cent on their investment in road and equipment, as compared with 5.74 per cent in 1916. In 1921, but 2.76 per cent was earned.

The total deficiency in the net railway operating income of these carriers, based on 5.75 per cent, aggregates from 1921 to the end of 1925 the sum of \$824,706,347.

Since 1921, freight rates have been reduced to such a considerable extent that based upon traffic handled by these carriers in the year 1925, there was saved to the shippers the substantial sum of \$244,117,679.

Resulting from the operations of the year 1925 (a year of prosperous business conditions) the eastern carriers were able to pay to the stockholders in dividends but 4.61 per cent, while interest paid on funded debt was 4.71 per cent.

With the necessity facing the carriers for continuing large expenditures in order to provide safe, efficient and economical transportation, their financial credit must be such as to make investment in their stocks attractive to the public.

Considering the foregoing pertinent facts, together with the liberal proportion of earnings of the carriers which these classes of employees are now receiving, we can not concur in the decision of the majority, and therefore, dissent therefrom.

Agreement in English Building Industry

THE threat of serious difficulties in the English building industry seems to have been averted by the adoption in September of a new agreement, signed by the principal organizations of employers and employees, of which a summary is given in the Ministry of Labor Gazette for October, 1922, and also in the Monthly Circular of the Labor Research Department, September, 1926.

Under this agreement hours and wage rates, rates for overtime and night work, and special allowances for traveling and lodging are to be determined on a national basis, but other conditions may be decided locally. A national joint council is to carry out the provisions of the agreement and to deal with all questions which may arise concerning wages and hours. Flexibility is secured by giving this council power to vary, under certain conditions, the provisions above mentioned. Wages for craftsmen are divided into ten grades, according to the locality, varying from 1s. 3½d.¹ per hour in the lowest grade to 1s. 8d. per hour in the highest, with a provision that the wages of laborers must under no condition be less than 75 per cent of the craftsman's standard hour rate. These wages may be adjusted by the following method:

In regard to wages the council is to review the position at its statutory meeting in January of each year. For this purpose the existing rates of wages, as fixed for the various grades of towns, are assumed to correspond to a cost of living figure of 78. For each variation of 6½ points from this figure, taking the average of the index numbers from January to December, rates of wages shall be varied by ½d. per hour. Provision is made, however, whereby exceptional or differential rates of wages, having been agreed to by regional joint committees, may be submitted for approval to the national council. Applications from towns for a variation in their grading are to be referred to a commission which will make recommendations to the council.

Rules concerning working conditions other than wages may be varied by the regional joint committees, subject to approval by the national council. Hours are to be 44 a week, except that during the period when daylight saving, known in England as "summer time," prevails they may be extended to 46½ a week. It is provided, however, that in any town or area the 44-hour week may be maintained throughout the year by mutual consent of employers and employees.

An "addendum agreement" provides that existing rates of wages shall be stabilized until August 1, 1927, unless and except to the extent that they may be varied by the council, for a period not exceeding 12 months following application from regional joint committees for exceptional rates in respect of a defined district. Existing applications for regrading of towns are to be adjudicated upon, but no further applications will be dealt with until October, 1927.

¹ At par shilling=24.33 cents, penny=2.03 cents; exchange rate is approximately at par.

IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION

Statistics of Immigration for October, 1926

By J. J. KUNNA, CHIEF STATISTICIAN U. S. BUREAU OF IMMIGRATION

THE statistics for October, 1926, show 56,587 aliens admitted to the United States, comprising 34,528 immigrants or newcomers for permanent residence in this country and 22,059 nonimmigrants or visitors. While this number of newcomers is less than that for the previous month, it is an increase over that for October, 1925, when 28,685 immigrant aliens entered the country. This increase is largely due to many aliens charged to the quota who are now arriving soon after securing visas abroad. In October, 1925, only 15,961 quota aliens entered, while during October last 18,024 aliens of this class were admitted. The said increase is also due to the present large incoming movement from Mexico, 4,783 immigrant aliens coming from that country in October, 1926, compared to only 1,919 from the same source during the same month of the previous year.

Alien departures during October, 1926, numbered 19,180, this, like the admissions, being a decrease from the previous month when 23,026 aliens left the United States. Over two-thirds, or 13,803, of the October departures were aliens of the nonemigrant class and 9,969 of these were here less than a year. The largest number of these visitors returned to Cuba, England, and Canada, 1,643, 1,277 and 1,197, respectively, going to these three countries; while 797 went to Australia and New Zealand; 649 to Asia; 756 to the West Indies (other than Cuba); 419 to South America; 315 to Central America; 301 to Mexico; 400 to Germany; and 252 to Italy. The rest of these nonemigrant aliens leaving this month after a short stay in the United States were scattered among the other countries.

Of the 5,377 emigrant aliens departed during October, 1926, having been in the United States for a period longer than one year and having left to make their homes abroad again, 3,729 went to Europe. Italy continues to receive the largest number of the emigrants leaving the United States, 1,377 going to that country for intended future permanent residence; while only 828 left for countries on the Western Hemisphere; 759 for Asia; and 61 for Africa, Australia, and the Pacific Islands.

The principal races contributing immigrant aliens during October, 1926, were the German (6,452), Irish (5,440), Mexican (4,750), English (4,512), Scotch (3,548), French (2,052), Scandinavian (1,897), Italian (1,609), and Hebrew (1,084). The men continue to outnumber the women among the new arrivals, 18,549 of the October immigrants being males and 15,979 females; and less than one-sixth of the total for the month were children, 5,553 of these immigrants being under 16 years of age; while 25,923 were in the prime of life

ranging in age from 16 to 44 years; and 3,052 were 45 years of age and over.

Deportations in October last jumped to 1,100, an increase of 215 over the previous month and 191 more than the number of aliens deported in October, 1925. Of the 1,100 deportees for October last 502 entered the country without visas, 105 were unable to read (over 16 years of age), 91 were found mentally or physically defective or afflicted with a contagious disease, 65 were criminals, and 53 were of the immoral classes. The remaining 284 aliens returned this month to the countries from which they came were deported for miscellaneous other causes under the general immigration laws.

Over one-half of the number of aliens deported this month were sent to countries on the Western Hemisphere, 267 going to Canada, 252 to Mexico, and 73 to the West Indies and to Central and South America. Europe received 462 of these October deportees, while 46 were sent to Asia, Africa, Australia, and the Pacific Islands.

During the four months ended October 31, 1926, a total of 205,696 aliens were admitted to the United States, compared to 170,154 for the same period of the previous year, the increase being divided among nearly all the admissible classes under the immigration act of 1924, particularly the nonquota immigrant. Of the number admitted from July to October last, 117,176 were nonquota immigrants, including 63,916 natives of nonquota countries and 43,130 returning residents; 53,237 were immigrants charged to the quota, and 35,283 were visitors for business or pleasure, transits, and others of the non-immigrant class under the act.

TABLE 1.—INWARD AND OUTWARD PASSENGER MOVEMENT FROM JULY 1 TO OCTOBER 31, 1926

Period	Inward					Aliens debarred from entering ¹	Outward					Aliens deported after landing ²		
	Aliens admitted			United States citizens arrived	Total		Aliens departed			United States citizens departed	Total			
	Immigrant	Non-immigrant	Total				Emigrant	Non-emigrant	Total					
1926														
July	22,283	16,096	38,379	25,981	64,360	1,746	7,052	17,970	25,022	60,223	85,245	816		
August	29,286	20,467	49,753	52,683	102,436	1,601	7,376	15,410	22,786	42,248	65,034	1,121		
September	35,297	25,080	60,977	71,268	132,245	1,817	6,634	16,392	23,026	26,263	49,294	885		
October	34,528	22,059	56,587	34,176	90,763	1,566	5,377	13,803	19,180	18,150	37,330	1,100		
Total	121,394	84,302	205,696	184,108	389,804	6,730	26,439	63,575	90,014	146,889	236,903	3,922		

¹ These aliens are not included among arrivals, as they were not permitted to enter the United States.

² These aliens are included among aliens departed, they having entered the United States, legally or illegally, and later being deported.

TABLE 2.—IMMIGRANT ALIENS ADMITTED TO AND EMIGRANT ALIENS DEPARTED FROM THE UNITED STATES DURING OCTOBER, 1926, AND FROM JULY 1 TO OCTOBER 31, 1926, BY RACE OR PEOPLE, SEX, AND AGE GROUP

Race or people	Immigrant		Emigrant	
	October, 1926	July to October, 1926	October, 1926	July to October, 1926
African (black).....	73	359	58	28
Armenian.....	62	350	7	26
Bohemian and Moravian (Czech).....	297	1,048	132	595
Bulgarian, Serbian, and Montenegrin.....	72	240	122	67
Chinese.....	108	609	545	1,487
Croatian and Slovenian.....	64	255	22	123
Cuban.....	52	873	50	268
Dalmatian, Bosnian, and Herzegovinian.....	3	20	21	164
Dutch and Flemish.....	324	1,107	64	341
East Indian.....	8	29	4	31
English.....	4,512	16,794	499	2,725
Finnish.....	60	235	22	155
French.....	2,052	8,092	105	626
German.....	6,452	17,748	242	1,478
Greek.....	278	815	263	1,315
Hebrew.....	1,084	3,264	26	100
Irish.....	5,440	18,133	100	729
Italian (north).....	218	823	155	1,045
Italian (south).....	1,391	5,568	1,224	5,114
Japanese.....	75	276	131	368
Korean.....	4	24	8	28
Lithuanian.....	75	184	11	183
Magyar.....	137	388	44	365
Mexican.....	4,750	22,388	233	848
Pacific Islander.....	1	5	1	5
Polish.....	571	1,445	217	1,253
Portuguese.....	97	312	93	89
Rumanian.....	29	122	103	543
Russian.....	108	399	45	210
Ruthenian (Russniak).....	34	144	—	10
Scandinavian (Norwegians, Danes, and Swedes).....	1,897	6,093	239	1,017
Scotch.....	3,548	10,363	141	1,07
Slovak.....	34	115	32	342
Spanish.....	91	373	168	1,006
Spanish American.....	222	1,284	144	558
Syrian.....	56	268	17	87
Turkish.....	10	43	9	77
Welsh.....	151	472	9	26
West Indian (except Cuban).....	42	149	60	275
Other peoples.....	46	185	11	94
Total.....	34,528	121,394	5,377	26,439
Male.....	18,549	68,432	3,861	17,628
Female.....	15,979	52,962	1,516	8,811
Under 16 years.....	5,553	19,222	234	1,186
16 to 44 years.....	25,923	91,161	3,737	18,913
45 years and over.....	3,052	11,011	1,406	6,340

TABLE 3.—LAST PERMANENT RESIDENCE OF IMMIGRANT ALIENS ADMITTED TO AND FUTURE PERMANENT RESIDENCE OF EMIGRANT ALIENS DEPARTED FROM THE UNITED STATES DURING OCTOBER, 1926, AND FROM JULY 1 TO OCTOBER 31, 1926, BY COUNTRY.

[Residence for a year or more is regarded as permanent residence]

Country	Immigrant		Emigrant	
	October, 1926	July to October, 1926	October, 1926	July to October, 1926
Albania	24	89	16	108
Austria	116	304	16	174
Belgium	67	270	35	184
Bulgaria	42	118	6	73
Czechoslovakia	348	1,228	154	811
Danzig, Free City of	48	133	—	2
Denmark	316	884	46	194
Estonia	18	76	—	7
Finland	50	161	21	134
France, including Corsica	475	1,540	85	550
Germany	5,507	14,806	209	1,274
Great Britain and Northern Ireland:				
England	1,100	3,361	315	2,027
Northern Ireland	38	91	9	102
Scotland	1,751	4,348	111	880
Wales	112	390	2	16
Greece	228	686	265	1,316
Hungary	105	309	39	315
Irish Free State	3,580	11,128	78	518
Italy, including Sicily and Sardinia	1,426	5,938	1,377	6,138
Latvia	53	172	2	8
Lithuania	73	206	8	176
Luxemburg	9	14	3	4
Netherlands	187	596	25	137
Norway	547	1,829	129	458
Poland	1,020	2,629	213	1,240
Portugal, including Azores, Cape Verde, and Madeira Islands	67	204	90	885
Rumania	133	356	107	550
Russia	138	404	12	100
Spain, including Canary and Balearic Islands	53	198	127	814
Sweden	828	2,601	47	297
Switzerland	305	811	32	214
Turkey in Europe	27	76	2	12
Yugoslavia	110	409	147	837
Other Europe	52	168	1	3
Total, Europe	18,953	56,533	3,729	20,558
Armenia		5	4	14
China	133	717	561	1,528
India	8	54	4	52
Japan	79	303	137	394
Palestine	39	151	22	91
Persia	4	11	4	16
Syria	36	199	19	72
Turkey in Asia	2	18	3	34
Other Asia	22	98	5	23
Total, Asia	323	1,556	759	2,224
Canada	9,295	35,324	109	582
Newfoundland	334	1,068	13	111
Mexico	4,783	22,696	232	847
Cuba	84	1,218	91	441
Other West Indies	91	356	184	662
British Honduras	52	80	3	5
Other Central America	88	631	50	222
Brazil	119	426	32	79
Other South America	237	976	114	431
Total, America	15,083	62,775	828	3,380
Egypt	38	102	—	9
Other Africa	25	120	3	28
Australia	63	176	34	162
New Zealand	38	111	24	62
Other Pacific Islands	5	21	—	16
Total, others	169	530	61	277
Grand total, all countries	34,528	121,394	5,377	26,439

TABLE 4.—ALIENS ADMITTED TO THE UNITED STATES UNDER THE IMMIGRATION ACT OF 1924 DURING OCTOBER, 1926, AND FROM JULY 1 TO OCTOBER 31, 1926, BY COUNTRY OR AREA OF BIRTH

[Quota immigrant aliens are charged to the quota; nonimmigrant and nonquota immigrant aliens are not charged to the quota]

Country or area of birth	Annual quota	Admitted					
		Quota immigrant		Nonimmigrant and nonquota immigrant		Total during October, 1926	Grand total, July to October, 1926
		July to October, 1926	October, 1926	July to October, 1926	October, 1926		
Albania	100	42	7	307	61	68	349
Andorra	100	2	2	2	1	3	4
Austria	785	255	86	710	246	332	965
Belgium	1,512	177	46	757	214	260	934
Bulgaria	100	74	24	92	31	55	166
Czechoslovakia	3,073	1,114	311	1,785	513	824	2,899
Danzig, Free City of	228	119	42	27	4	46	146
Denmark	1,2789	928	319	966	286	605	1,894
Estonia	124	67	16	57	14	30	124
Finland	471	150	38	902	323	361	1,052
France	13,954	1,221	396	2,869	794	1,190	4,090
Germany	51,227	15,120	5,587	6,821	2,158	7,745	21,941
Great Britain and Northern Ireland:							
England		4,028	1,266	11,899	3,057	4,323	15,927
Northern Ireland	1,34,007	219	69	256	46	115	475
Scotland		4,740	1,872	5,104	1,342	3,214	9,844
Wales		433	136	502	154	290	935
Greece	100	82	23	1,447	480	503	1,529
Hungary	473	162	57	847	252	309	1,009
Iceland	100	26	3	11	2	5	37
Irish Free State	28,567	12,371	3,942	2,989	955	4,897	15,360
Italy	1,3,845	1,452	289	12,332	3,741	4,030	13,784
Latvia	142	84	28	136	39	67	220
Liechtenstein	100	11	2			2	11
Lithuania	344	106	41	351	117	158	457
Luxemburg	100	11	7	64	25	32	75
Monaco	100	3		2			5
Netherlands	1,648	532	166	1,134	359	525	1,666
Norway	6,453	1,899	589	1,918	536	1,125	3,817
Poland	5,982	1,711	753	2,503	766	1,519	4,214
Portugal	1,503	155	46	948	307	353	1,103
Rumania	603	231	77	783	266	343	1,014
Russia	1,2,248	601	203	1,111	262	465	1,712
San Marino	100	71	19	1		19	72
Spain	1,131	78	9	1,924	431	440	2,002
Sweden	9,561	2,769	868	1,900	641	1,509	4,759
Switzerland	2,081	757	304	1,290	391	695	2,047
Turkey in Europe	1,100	35	19	528	155	174	563
Yugoslavia	671	254	63	1,002	275	338	1,256
Other Europe	(1)	82	29	76	29	58	158
Total, Europe	1,161,422	52,172	17,754	66,443	19,273	37,027	118,615
Afghanistan	100	1		1			2
Arabia	100	1					1
Armenia	124	24	7	37	10	17	61
Bhutan	100	1					1
China	100	56	17	4,045	738	755	4,101
India	100	45	10	252	52	62	297
Iraq (Mesopotamia)	100	45	11	14	4	15	59
Japan	100	12	1	2,837	770	771	2,849
Muscat	100			2			2
Nepal	100						
Palestine	100	89	22	129	40	62	218
Persia	100	33	8	43	10	18	76
Siam	100	1		18	2	2	19
Syria	100	80	14	295	67	81	375
Turkey in Asia	(1)	28		212	28	28	240
Other Asia	(1)	75	26	66	11	37	141
Total, Asia	1,424	491	116	7,951	1,732	1,848	8,442

¹ Annual quota for colonies, dependencies, or protectorates in Other Europe, Other Asia, Other Africa, Other Pacific, and in America is included with the annual quota for the European country to which they belong. Quota for Turkey in Asia is included with that for Turkey in Europe.

TABLE 4.—ALIENS ADMITTED TO THE UNITED STATES UNDER THE IMMIGRATION ACT OF 1924 DURING OCTOBER, 1926, AND FROM JULY 1 TO OCTOBER 31, 1926, BY COUNTRY OR AREA OF BIRTH—Continued

Country or area of birth	Annual quota	Admitted					
		Quota immigrant		Nonimmigrant and nonquota immigrant		Total during October, 1926	Grand total, July to October, 1926
		July to October, 1926	October, 1926	July to October, 1926	October, 1926		
Cameroon (British)	100			1			1
Cameroon (French)	100						
Egypt	100	60	22	56	16	38	116
Ethiopia	100			1			1
Liberia	100	2		2	1	1	4
Morocco	100	3	2	7	3	5	10
Ruanda and Urundi	100						
South Africa, Union of	100	68	15	165	37	52	233
South West Africa	100						
Tanganyika	100						
Togoland (British)	100						
Togoland (French)	100						
Other Africa	(1)	22	1	45	5	6	67
Total, Africa	1,200	155	40	277	62	102	432
Australia	121	70	22	1,642	450	472	1,712
Nauru	100						
New Zealand	100	64	20	466	124	144	530
New Guinea	100						
Samoa	100	3		6	2	2	9
Yap	100			3	1	1	3
Other Pacific	(1)	4		69	20	20	73
Total, Pacific	621	141	42	2,186	597	639	2,327
Canada				34,782	8,815	8,815	34,782
Newfoundland				1,892	497	497	1,892
Mexico				28,381	6,080	6,080	28,381
Cuba				3,820	250	250	3,820
Dominican Republic				406	86	86	406
Haiti				91	20	20	91
British West Indies	(1)	196	50	1,907	289	339	2,103
Dutch West Indies	(1)	11		62	14	14	73
French West Indies	(1)	12	4	21	5	9	33
British Honduras	(1)	35	10	42	5	15	77
Canal Zone				6			6
Other Central America				1,464	233	233	1,464
Brazil							
British Guiana	(1)	21	5	572	143	143	572
Dutch Guiana	(1)	2	2	62	7	12	83
French Guiana	(1)			4		2	6
Other South America				2,071	450	450	2,071
Greenland	(1)			2	1	1	2
Miquelon and St. Pierre	(1)	1	1	17	4	5	18
Total America		278	72	75,602	16,899	16,971	75,880
Grand total	164,667	53,237	18,024	152,459	38,563	56,587	205,696

¹ Annual quota for colonies, dependencies, or protectorates in Other Europe, Other Asia, Other Africa, Other Pacific, and in America is included with the annual quota for the European country to which they belong. Quota for Turkey in Asia is included with that for Turkey in Europe.

TABLE 5.—ALIENS ADMITTED TO THE UNITED STATES UNDER THE IMMIGRATION ACT OF 1924, DURING OCTOBER, 1926, AND FROM JULY 1 TO OCTOBER 31, 1926, BY SPECIFIED CLASSES

[The number of immigrants appearing in this table and in Table 4 is not comparable with the number of statistical immigrant aliens shown in the other tables, by races, countries, States, and occupations]

Class	October, 1926	July to October, 1926
<i>Nonimmigrants</i>		
Government officials, their families, attendants, servants, and employees	527	2,264
Temporary visitors for—		
Business	2,412	7,808
Pleasure	2,820	14,860
In continuous transit through the United States	2,276	9,865
To carry on trade under existing treaty	139	486
Total	8,174	35,283
<i>Nonquota immigrants</i>		
Wives of United States citizens	1,883	12,907
Children of United States citizens	1,721	12,165
Residents of the United States returning from a visit abroad	12,716	43,130
Natives of Canada, Newfoundland, Mexico, Cuba, Haiti, Dominican Republic, Canal Zone, or an independent country of Central or South America	14,976	63,916
Their wives	188	313
Their children	111	151
Ministers of religious denominations	59	238
Wives of ministers	31	121
Children of ministers	56	224
Professors of colleges, academies, seminaries, or universities	6	79
Wives of professors	1	21
Children of professors		6
Students	215	1,132
Veterans of the World War	465	2,248
Wives of veterans	71	263
Children of veterans	89	361
Spanish subjects admitted into Porto Rico (act approved May 26, 1926)	1	1
Total	30,389	117,176
Quota immigrants (charged to quota)	18,024	53,237
Grand total admitted	56,587	205,696

¹ Wives and unmarried children under 18 years of age born in quota countries.

² Does not include aliens born in nonquota countries who were admitted as Government officials, visitors, returning residents, etc.

ACTIVITIES OF STATE LABOR BUREAUS

AMONG the activities of State labor bureaus, the following, reported either directly by the bureaus themselves or through the medium of their printed reports, are noted in the present issue of the *Labor Review*:

California.—Changes in volume of employment and pay roll, page 175.

Illinois.—Changes in employment and earnings in factories in the State, page 177.

Iowa.—Report on reasons for children leaving school, page 127; changes in number of employees in specified industries, page 179.

Maryland.—Report of operations under State workmen's compensation act, page 103; report on volume of employment, page 180.

Massachusetts.—Salaries of office employees, page 141; changes in volume of employment in various industries in the State, page 181.

Nebraska.—Report of operations under State workmen's compensation act, page 104.

New Jersey.—Changes in volume of employment and pay roll, page 182.

New York.—Changes in employment and pay rolls in factories, page 184.

Oklahoma.—Changes in employment and pay rolls in the industries of the State, page 186.

Pennsylvania.—Report on industrial home work and child labor in State, page 128.

Philippine Islands.—The director of the bureau of labor of the department of commerce and communications of the Philippine Islands has furnished the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics with a summary of the functions of his office and an analysis of the work done by it during 1925.

The work of that bureau, whether prescribed by law or merely understood, is to see to the enforcement of existing laws relating to labor and capital and to promote the enactment of new legislation for the benefit of the workers; to collect and publish statistical data relating to labor; to inspect all workshops and other labor centers and take proper legal steps to insure the protection of the lives and health of the workers; to assist the workers to secure just compensation for their services and the indemnity prescribed by law for injuries resulting from accidents; to bring about the settlement of labor disputes or avert them if possible; to organize free public employment agencies; to promote interisland migration and the distribution of the population of the Philippine Islands so as to colonize unoccupied land; and to supervise contracts of laborers for service abroad. Under instructions from the Government, or upon the request of the interested parties, the bureau also intervenes in conflicts between agricultural landowners and their tenants, making the necessary investigations and arranging settlements.

In connection with its supervision of contracts with laborers for service abroad, it is the duty of the bureau to prevent the making of contracts with minors under 15 years of age, and with minors of 18

years of age without the consent of their parents or guardians. Attention is given to the clothing supplied to contract laborers, especially if they are going to a climate requiring heavier clothing than is worn in the Philippines, and also to the sanitation of the ships in which these laborers travel. In September, 1925, the director made an investigation of the operation of the contract system and of the living conditions of Filipino contract laborers in Hawaii. A résumé of his report on this subject was published in the Labor Review for October, 1926 (pp. 4-9).

Since 1913 the island legislature has been allotting funds for the purpose of establishing and maintaining agricultural colonies and the encouragement of interisland migration, in order to make a just and proper redistribution of population, to encourage the possession of small land holdings among the greatest number of people by means of homesteads, and to increase the production of foodstuffs such as rice, corn, and other cereals. The amount of money made available for this purpose is said to be inadequate, but, according to the director, the systematic propaganda campaign carried on by the bureau of labor to induce people in the densely populated regions to migrate to unoccupied public lands has met with enthusiastic response from the working classes, and large numbers of them have migrated to these lands at their own expense and without seeking the assistance of the bureau. During the five-year period 1921 to 1925 the bureau recruited and shipped to sparsely populated regions 6,846 emigrants, the expense incurred being 92,000 pesos (\$46,000).

During the year 1925, 23 industrial disputes involving 9,936 workers were adjusted as compared with 20 disputes involving 6,784 workers in 1924. Nineteen of the adjustments in 1925 were in favor of the workers and 4 in favor of the employer. Of the disputes which occurred in 1925, 12 were over the question of wages, the matter in dispute in the other cases being ill treatment, dismissals, etc. Seventeen resulted in a stoppage or suspension of work, the number of working-days lost being about 156,917 and the amount of wages 187,617 pesos (\$93,809), the corresponding losses in 1924 being 56,725 working-days and 112,869 pesos (\$56,435) in wages. The duration of the disputes varied from one day to four weeks. Two strikes in tobacco factories, lasting 20 and 28 days respectively, affected 3,400 employees and caused a loss of 90,400 working-days and 108,480 pesos (\$54,240) in wages, representing 58 per cent of the total wages and working-days lost through strikes during the year.

A total of 430 industrial accidents, affecting 453 workers, were investigated in 1925, compared with 500 accidents and 529 injured in 1924; 48 of these accidents resulted in death, 15 in permanent disability, and 390 in temporary disability, corresponding numbers for 1924 being 61, 31, and 437. The largest number of accidents (114) occurred in building and construction, with 116 workers more or less seriously injured, and the largest number of fatalities (14) in the wood furniture, sawmill, and lumber-yard group. Twenty-five accidents occurred in Government activities, causing the death of 5 of the 27 persons injured.

The number of claims and complaints filed with the bureau in 1925 was 615, by 1,371 persons; in 1924 there were 688 claims and com-

plaints, made by 1,155 persons. Of the 365 cases decided in favor of the claimants in 1925, 349 were claims for money or wages due for services rendered and 16 involved the return of personal belongings, unjust treatment, etc. In cases where the matters were taken to court the attorney of the bureau of labor acted as counsel for the laborer free of charge. The services of the bureau in settling complaints are utilized not only by Filipinos but also by workers of American and other nationalities.

During the year 5,106 applicants for work, including domestics, were registered at the employment agencies of the bureau, of whom 4,469, or 88 per cent, were placed in employment, as compared with 4,673 registrations and 4,246 placements in 1924.

The bureau of labor is instructed by law to visit from time to time all industrial, commercial, and agricultural establishments, whether operated by the Government or by private individuals, in order to collect statistical data relating to labor, to determine the general labor conditions, and to secure compliance with the laws governing working conditions in these establishments. Although the appropriation for this inspection work in 1925 was inadequate, according to the report, 2,821 centers of labor, with 69,881 employees, were visited, in 14 Provinces including the city of Manila, the tour of inspection covering 83 municipalities. This represents an increase over 1924, when 2,048 centers were visited.

Pursuant to the provisions of the law regulating employment of women and children, 130 centers of labor employing 7,204 women and children were inspected. Of these workers, 1,008 were under 18 years of age. For minors under 18 years of age the law requires certified copies of birth certificates to be presented for employment. The number of males not having birth certificates was found to be 80 and that of females 201, although on a second inspection these numbers had been reduced by 27 who furnished the certificates following the first inspection. The bureau has allowed employers and minors 30 days within which to furnish these certificates, the period being extended in some cases. The majority of women and children working near machines driven by motive power are required to wear caps and short-sleeved dresses to prevent accidents. Proper seats are supposed to be provided where the nature of the work permits their use. Children who work during the day are urged to attend night schools.

Porto Rico.—The Workmen's Relief Commission of Porto Rico has experienced a fire which completely destroyed all its files and records. The commission is endeavoring to reconstruct its records from copies and files of the various manufacturing and employing establishments with whom it has been transacting business.

Wisconsin.—Report of operations under State workmen's compensation act, page 105; report on volume of employment in Wisconsin industries, page 186.

CURRENT NOTES OF INTEREST TO LABOR

International Association of Applied Psychology¹

IN MARCH, 1926, the International Association of Psychology and Techno-psychology was constituted with representatives in 19 countries of Europe, the association membership including "persons active in psychology or its applications in industry, commerce, traffic, management, or training."

Centers are in operation in Austria, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, England, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Holland, Hungary, Italy, Latvia, Norway, Rumania, Russia, Spain, Sweden, and Switzerland. The German center has undertaken as its first work the making of a list of German firms which use psychological tests.

The August, 1926, issue of *Industrielle Psychotechnik* contains a list of German establishments which use employment tests. In addition to the name and address of each firm, the date of the installation of the tests is given, also whose tests are used, the name of the person in charge of the experiments, the occupations for which the tests are made, the number annually subjected to the tests, and references to published data on the work being done. The report includes 107 firms.

published data on the work being done. The report includes 107 firms. It is understood that lists of a similar character are being made up for other countries of Europe.

¹ The Journal of Personnel Research, Baltimore, October, 1926, p. 257.

The Five-Day Week in Industry: A List of References

COMPILED BY LAURA A. THOMPSON, LIBRARIAN, U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR.

Report of the proceedings of the 46th annual convention of the American Federation of Labor held at Detroit, Mich., October 4-14, 1926. Washington, D. C., Law Reporter Printing Co., 1926.

Report of committee on the shorter workday and discussion on five-day week by Frey, Duncan, Green, and others, pp. 195-207.

The convention declared for "a progressive shortening of hours of labor and the days per week" and for a campaign of education and organization.

ATTITUDE OF CERTAIN EMPLOYERS TO FIVE-DAY WEEK.

Monthly Labor Review, December, 1926, v. 23, pp. 1168, 1169.

Views of Judge Gary, Charles Cheney, and Fayette R. Plumb.

ATTITUDE OF ORGANIZED LABOR TOWARD THE SHORTER WORK WEEK.

Monthly Labor Review, December, 1926, v. 23, pp. 1166-1168.

Text of resolution adopted by American Federation of Labor convention at Detroit and statements of William Green and Sydney Hillman as reported in daily press.

BINDER, CARROLL.

[Three articles on the Ford five-day week plan.]

Washington Star, November 9, 10, and 11, 1926.

Based on interviews with Henry Ford and his executives and other employers and workers in Detroit.

BOSTON FUR WORKERS WIN 40-HOUR OR FIVE-DAY WEEK AFTER FIVE WEEKS' STRIKE.

Labor, November 20, 1926, p. 2.

BROTHERHOOD OF PAINTERS, DECORATORS AND PAPERHANGERS OF AMERICA.

Reports of the general officers to the 12th general assembly, Dallas, Tex., September, 1921. Lafayette, Ind., 1921. 76 pp.

The secretary-treasurer reported (p. 39) the five-day week as in effect in 26 localities including New York, Philadelphia, Seattle, Tacoma, and Joliet. For text of resolution adopted indorsing five-day week of 40 hours as the objective of all local unions see its Proceedings, 1921, p. 156.

At the American Federation of Labor convention in 1926, the president of this brotherhood reported that about 35,000 of 125,000 members were working the five-day week (American Federation of Labor, Proceedings, 1926, p. 196).

BUILDING TRADES EMPLOYERS' ASSOCIATION, Cleveland, Ohio.

Five-day week.

(In its mimeographed bulletin, October 14, 1926, No. 35, p. 1.)

Urge support of the employers' organization as a means of preventing further extension of five-day week in the construction industry.

DEBUNKING FORD'S FIVE-DAY WEEK.

Advance (Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America), November 19, 1926, p. 11.

On the effect on wages in the Ford plants.

EXPERIMENTS IN FIVE-DAY WEEK.

Labour Gazette (Canada), October, 1926, v. 26, p. 927.

[FEISS, RICHARD A.]

Why it paid us to adopt the five-day week.

Factory, August 15, 1920, v. 25, pp. 523-526.

Based on an interview with the general manager of Joseph & Feiss Co., Cleveland (men's clothing), where the five-day week on a production basis was introduced in 1917. Advantages listed are saving of power, reduction in absenteeism, new sources of labor, more balanced production.

THE FIVE-DAY WEEK.

Facts for Workers (Labor Bureau Economic News Letter), November, 1926, pp. 1, 2.

Brief review of the progress made toward shorter hours and particularly of the new arguments advanced in support of a five-day week.

THE FIVE-DAY WEEK.

Industrial and Labour Information (International Labor Office, Geneva), November 1, 1926, v. 20, pp. 195, 196.

THE FIVE-DAY WEEK. Efficiency of production must be maintained.

Index (New York Trust Co.), October, 1926, pp. 13-15.

FIVE-DAY WEEK THAT PAYS BOTH EMPLOYER AND EMPLOYEES.

Literary Digest, October 2, 1920, v. 67, pp. 80-82.

THE FIVE-DAY WEEK. Views of Ford, Gary, Green, and others; the true significance of the proposal and the limits of its practical application.

Industrial Management, November, 1926, v. 72, pp. 269-272.

Editorial analysis of the economic factors.

FIVE-DAY WORK WEEK ALREADY IN EFFECT AT MANY PLANTS.

Trades Union News (Philadelphia), November 4, 1925, p. 5.

Includes quotations from statement by Frances Perkins, of the New York State Industrial Commission, at the Women's Industrial Conference, Washington, D. C., January, 1926. Summary of address also in Monthly Labor Review for March, 1926, v. 22, p. 615.

FIVE-DAY WORK WEEK UPHELD IN RULING OF DISTRICT COURT. Attempt of New York contractors to enjoin law of painters' unions fails.

Labor, October 23, 1926, p. 1.

See also report of case in Law and Labor, November, 1926, v. 8, pp. 296, 297.

FIVE-DAY WORKING WEEK IS INDORSED BY MELLON. Secretary of U. S. Treasury takes stand in favor of plan recently adopted by Henry Ford. Statement by William Green.

Trades Union News (Philadelphia), October 14, 1926, p. 16.

FORD, HENRY.

The function of banking, by Henry Ford, as told to Samuel Crowther. American Bankers' Association Journal, October, 1926, pp. 199-201, 250, 260.

According to this authorized interview, the Ford industries are committed to the policy of high pay and high leisure, "not on humanitarian grounds, but because without leisure the workingmen—who are the largest buyers in the country—can not have the time to cultivate a higher standard of living and therefore to increase their purchasing power." View expressed is that unless the shorter week is widely adopted producing power will run ahead of consumption.

See also "Mr. Ford's page" in issues of Dearborn Independent for October and November, 1926.

— Henry Ford: Why I favor five days' work with six days' pay. World's Work, October, 1926, v. 52, pp. 613-616.

Authorized interview by Samuel Crowther. Discusses the economic value of leisure. Reprinted in Monthly Labor Review, December, 1926, v. 23, pp. 1162-1166.

40-HOUR WEEK IS "GOOD BUSINESS," SAYS WOMAN EMPLOYER IN NEW YORK. Labor, November 20, 1926, p. 3.

Testimony of Mrs. Norman de R. Whitehouse before the New York State Industrial Survey Commission, November 8, 1926.

FREY, JOHN P.

[Increase of labor productivity in the United States.]

(In American Federation of Labor. Proceedings, 1926, pp. 198-200.)
Speech in support of shorter work week.

— Labor's movement for a five-day week.

Current History Magazine, December, 1926, v. 25, pp. 369-372.

GEORGE, JEROME R.

Five-day week not a fool idea.

Industry (Associated Industries of Massachusetts), November 13, 1926, v. 18, No. 11 (cover).

Statement regarding the experience of the Morgan Construction Co., Worcester, in operating on a two 44-hour shift basis, one of the shifts working only five days a week.

GREAT BRITAIN. Factory Inspector's Office.

Annual report of the chief inspector of factories and workshops for the year 1925. London, 1926. (Cmd. 2714.)

Includes section on five-day week (pp. 43, 44). Summarized in Monthly Labor Review November, 1926, v. 23, pp. 1054, 1055.

[GREEN, WILLIAM.]

The five-day week.

American Federationist, November, 1926, v. 33, pp. 1299, 1300.

Editorial expressing the attitude of the American Federation of Labor. *See also* Address before the American Federation of Labor convention at Detroit in its Proceedings, 1926, pp. 205-207. Stresses the human value of leisure as well as its economic significance.

— The five-day week.

North American Review, December, 1926, pp. 567-574.

— Five-day week to come in our time, Green prophesies: Labor, December 11, 1926, p. 1.

Excerpts from address before New York Building Congress, December 8, 1926. Reported also in New York Times, December 9, and other daily papers.

[GREEN, WILLIAM.]

Less working hours is logical.

American Labor World, November, 1926, p. 20.

— Short work week not revolutionary; several industries can make change.

American Federation of Labor Weekly News Service, October 9, 1926.

The mining, building, and automobile industries are the ones specially referred to as ready for the shorter work week.

HAIN, A. J.

Eyes of industry on Ford five-day-week experiment.

Iron Trade Review, October 7, 1926, v. 79, pp. 907-909.

HEDRICK, GEORGE F.

The five-day week.

Painter and Decorator, November, 1926, v. 40, No. 11, pp. 4, 5.

Statement of the president of the Brotherhood of Painters, Decorators, and Paperhangers that out of a total membership of 125,000 about 35,000 were working the five-day week. This organization has recently established the five-day week in its own general offices.

— The five-day week.

American Labor World, December, 1926, pp. 24, 25.

HENRY FORD'S FIVE-DAY WEEK.

Literary Digest, April 29, 1922, v. 73, p. 8.

HOW THE FIVE-DAY WORK WEEK WORKS.

Literary Digest, August 15, 1925, v. 86, pp. 10, 11.

On the investigation made by the New York World of all-day Saturday closing during July and August by mercantile and commercial concerns in fourteen of the largest American cities.

INDUSTRY TRIES THE FIVE-DAY WEEK: Employers divided on economy of plan; majority find it best in 48-hour week; aids labor supply.

Michigan Manufacturer and Financial Record, June 30, 1923, pp. 1, 2.

Discussion of answers to questionnaire sent out by Merchants' Association of New York.

LABOR NOW OUT FOR A FIVE-DAY WEEK.

Literary Digest, October 16, 1926, v. 91, pp. 9-11.

Quotations from William Green, Henry Ford, E. H. Gary, James A. Emery, Secretary Mellon, Professor Carver, and others as reported in the daily press with editorial comment.

LAUE, J. CHARLES.

Five-day week becomes a vivid issue. Labor's new campaign for shorter working period and its actual adoption in Ford plants raise basic questions of industrial policy.

New York Times, October 17, 1926, Sec. 9, pp. 1, 9.

Includes views of leaders for and against.

LAUNCHING THE FIVE-DAY WEEK.

American Labor Legislation Review, December, 1926, v. 16, pp. 288-290.

LEISURE AND CONSUMPTION.

New York Times, October 12, 1926, p. 28.

Editorial on the policy of Mr. Ford as given in an interview in the American Bankers' Association Journal, and on the action of the American Federation of Labor at its Detroit convention.

LYNCH, JAMES M.

Shorter working day urged as alleviation for depression cycles.

American Labor World, November, 1926, pp. 28, 29.

MANUFACTURERS DISCUSS FORD FIVE-DAY WEEK.

Iron Age, October 28, 1926, v. 118, pp. 1201, 1202.

MENDELSON, SIGMUND.

Labor's Crisis; An Employer's View of Labor Problems. New York, The Macmillan Co., 1920. 171 pp.

"Economic effect of curtailed labor," pp. 53-63; "Can reduced hours advance the welfare of labor and society," pp. 64-70.

MERCHANTS' ASSOCIATION OF NEW YORK.

Manufacturers are divided on five-day week.

Greater New York, May 14, 1923, v. 12, No. 20, p. 8; May 21, 1923, No. 21, p. 27; June 25, 1923, No. 26, pp. 5-7.

Results of questionnaire sent out by industrial bureau of the Merchants' Association of New York to 40 establishments in 12 different lines of industry. Articles include quotations from letters received and analyze the replies by industries. The 34 manufacturers who had tried the plan for year-round operation were about evenly divided in their opinions as to its advantages and its disadvantages.

Summarized in Monthly Labor Review for September, 1923, v. 17, pp. 652, 653.

MR. GREEN'S FIVE-DAY WEEK.

Coal Age, October 28, 1926, v. 30, p. 592.

Editorial discussing the subject with particular reference to the coal industry.

Moss, F. J.

The budget with five work days per week.

Commerce and Finance, November 3, 1926, v. 15, p. 2219.

MYERS, GUSTAVE.

Once dreaded output by machinery frees workers from long hours of toil in shop.

New York Herald Tribune, October 17, 1926, Sec. III, p. 3.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF BUILDING TRADES EMPLOYERS.

The five-day week in industry.

(*In its Bulletin*, October 10, 1926, v. 4, No. 19, p. 1.)

Urges employers in the building trades to oppose further extension of the five-day week. *See also its* Press release announcing conference at Pittsburgh, December 13, printed in part in New York Times, November 28, 1926, Sec. 2, p. 1. Text of resolution adopted in New York Times, December 14, 1926, p. 49. Five-day week regarded as impossible in the construction industry because it would further increase cost of production, create an "artificial labor shortage," and "would have a disastrous effect on an industry already undermanned."

— Much agitation for 5-day week.

(*In its Bulletin*, August 25, 1924, v. 3, No. 16, p. 2.)

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF MANUFACTURERS.

Will the five-day week become universal? It will not.

(*In its Pocket Bulletin*, October, 1926, v. 27, No. 3, pp. 1-12.)

Symposium by presidents of various large industrial establishments. Some of the arguments advanced against the five-day week are that it would increase the cost of living, increase wages and decrease production, create a craving for additional luxuries, and make the United States more vulnerable to the economic onslaught of Europe.

NEUTRAL VIEW OF INDUSTRIAL FIVE-DAY WEEK; textile manufacturer gives his experience with the experiment; tool maker tells of modifications which adapt the plan to his business and preserve benefits.

Greater New York, May 28, 1923, No. 22, p. 7.

NEW YORK (State). Department of Labor.

The industrial five-day week.

(*In its Industrial Bulletin*, August, 1925, v. 4, p. 284.)

Survey by the Bureau of Women in Industry of the movement in New York State toward Saturday closing during July and August in mercantile establishments and as a year-round measure in industry.

Summarized in *Monthly Labor Review* for October, 1925, v. 21, pp. 747, 748.

A PAINTER'S JEREMIAD.

Painter and Decorator, July, 1920, v. 34, p. 285.

Quotation from speech of Wm. E. Wall at annual convention of Society of Master House Painters and Decorators of Massachusetts in opposition to five-day week.

PHILADELPHIA INDUSTRIAL MEN EXPRESS OPPOSITION TO NEW LABOR UNION PROPOSAL FOR FIVE-DAY WEEK.

Philadelphia (Philadelphia Chamber of Commerce), December, 1926, pp. 5-7+.

THE PROPOSED FIVE-DAY WEEK.

Industry, October 23, 1926, v. 18, No. 8 (cover).

Quotations from William Green, Elbert H. Gary, Henry Ford, and John E. Edgerton.

THE SHORTER HOURS CURE FOR OVERPRODUCTION.

Literary Digest, September 18, 1926, v. 90, p. 16.

SEVERAL THOUSAND CLOAKMAKERS WIN; GET HIGHER WAGE AND 40-HOUR WEEK.
American Federation of Labor Weekly News Service, November 20, 1926.

On the settlement of the cloakmakers' strike in New York City.

STEFFLER, C. W.

Five days shalt thou labor.

Commerce and Finance, October 6, 1926, v. 15, p. 2019.

STEWART, ETHELBERT.

Five-day week used in several industries.

United States Daily, December 2, 1926, p. 1, 3.

Excerpts from paper presented before convention of National Amusement Parks Association, Chicago, December 1, 1926.

STRIKE SETTLED—PREVIOUS GAINS LOST.

Fur Worker, June, 1926, p. 1, 2.

Analysis of the changes made by the new agreement. Provides 40-hour week for eight months in year for New York fur workers.

TWO DAYS' RESPITE IN SEVEN.

Manufacturers' News, August 28, 1925, p. 6.

UNITED MINE WORKERS OF AMERICA.

The case of the bituminous coal mine workers as presented to the President's Coal Commission appointed December, 1919. Washington, D. C., United Mine Workers of America, 1920. 78 pp.

One of the demands made was for a six-hour day and five-day week as a means of regularizing mining operations.

UNITED STATES. *Bureau of Labor Statistics.*

Prevalence of the 5-day week in American industry.

Monthly Labor Review, December, 1926, v. 23, pp. 1153-1162.

A summary of the material on this subject obtained by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in its recent surveys of wages and hours of labor in various industries, in its studies of collective agreements among the organized trades, and in various items from trade journals.

— Trade agreements, 1923-1924, 1925. Washington, 1925, 1926. 2 v. (Its Bulletins Nos. 393, 419.)

Some of the agreements included in these reports and in current issues of the Monthly Labor Review contain provisions for a five-day week for whole or part of year.

WEINZWEIG, IRVING.

Ford's five-day work week. Some facts about the much-talked-of but little-explained reduction.

Advance, October 22, 1926, p. 10.

Regards the reduction as forced by declining sales and the whole plan a "gigantic publicity stunt."

WHAT ABOUT THE FIVE-DAY WORKING WEEK; SOME WEAK POINTS.

Commercial West, December 4, 1926, p. 23+.

WISE, JOSEPH A.

Ford's five-day week vehicle to sell "Lizzies."

Union Reporter (Canton, Ohio), October, 1926, v. 25, No. 10, p. 1.

WRIGHT, CHESTER M.

Epoch-making decisions in great American Federation of Labor convention at Detroit.

American Labor World, November, 1926, pp. 22-24.

Includes section on shorter work week

PUBLICATIONS RELATING TO LABOR

Official—United States

IOWA.—Bureau of Labor. *Bulletin No. 17: Special investigation of children in industry attending part-time school. Des Moines, 1926.* 77 pp.

Some of the findings of this investigation are given on page 127 of this issue.

KANSAS.—Public Service Commission. *Coal Mine Inspection and Mine Rescue Departments. Annual report, 1925. Topeka, 1926.* 145 pp.

In Kansas in the calendar year 1925 there were 11 fatal and 704 nonfatal accidents in the production of over 4,800,000 tons of coal.

— — — Women's Division (and Child Labor). *First annual report, 1925. Topeka, 1926.* 37 pp.

In addition to a brief résumé of the year's work, the report contains a summary of the laws of Kansas relating to the employment of women and minors.

KENTUCKY.—Bureau of Agriculture, Labor and Statistics. *Twelfth biennial report, 1924-1925. Frankfort [1926?].* 79 pp.

In the biennium covered by the above report the inspection service of the Kentucky State Labor Department made 2,029 inspections in industries employing 127,712, of whom 114,181 were white and 13,531 colored. Of the white employees 88,046 were males and 26,135 were females; of the colored personnel, 10,327 were males and 3,204 females. The report gives tables showing, by industry and by cause of accident, the number of accidents reported to the workmen's compensation board in the fiscal years ending June 30, 1921, to 1925, the number reported for the latter year being 26,683 and for the five-year period, 114,336. There is also a section on child labor.

MARYLAND.—Industrial Accident Commission. *Eleventh annual report for the year November 1, 1924, to October 31, 1925. [Annapolis, 1926?].* 45 pp.

Data on workmen's compensation, taken from this report, are given on page 103 of this issue.

MASSACHUSETTS.—Department of Labor and Industries. *Annual report on the statistics of labor for the year ending November 30, 1926: Part I—Time rates of wages and hours of labor in Massachusetts, 1925 (labor bulletin No. 149). Boston, 1926.* 117 pp.

NEBRASKA.—Department of Labor. *Twentieth biennial report, 1925. Lincoln, 1926.* 116 pp.

This report, covering the year 1925, is devoted principally to the administration of the workmen's compensation act of Nebraska. Information on this point is given on page 104 of this issue.

NEW YORK.—Department of Labor. Bureau of Industrial Hygiene. *Silicosis in New York State: A study of fifteen cases of silicosis from the standpoint of compensation. Albany, 1926.* 29 pp., illus.

PENNSYLVANIA.—Department of Labor and Industry. *Special bulletin No. 10: Conference on women in industry, December 8 and 9, 1925. Harrisburg, 1926.* 119 pp.

— — — *Special bulletin No. 11: Industrial home work and child labor, prepared by Bureau of Women and Children. Harrisburg, 1926.* 39 pp.

Some data from this report are given on page 128 of this issue.

TENNESSEE.—Department of Labor. Division of Workmen's Compensation. *Supreme court decisions covering Tennessee workmen's compensation law, 1919 to 1924. Nashville [1925?]. 43 pp.*

The main points in the compensation decisions rendered by the supreme court for the five years covered are briefly presented.

UNITED STATES.—Department of Agriculture. *Department bulletin No. 1466: The farmer's standard of living; a socioeconomic study of 2,886 white farm families of selected localities in 11 States, by E. L. Kirkpatrick, Bureau of Agricultural Economics. Washington, 1926. 63 pp., charts.*

— Department of Commerce. Bureau of Mines. *Technical paper 395: Accidents at metallurgical works in the United States during the calendar year 1924, by William W. Adams. Washington, 1926. 37 pp.*

Figures from this report are published on page 64 of this issue.

— Department of Labor. *Annual report of the Secretary of Labor for fiscal year ended June 30, 1926. Washington, 1926. vii, 149 pp.*

A summary of this report is given on page 50 of this issue.

— Bureau of Labor Statistics. *Bulletin No. 407: Labor cost of production and wages and hours of labor in the paper box-board industry. Washington, 1926. iii, 89 pp.*

Advance figures on hours and earnings, taken from this report, were published in the *Labor Review* for October, 1925.

— *Bulletin No. 415: Wholesale prices, 1890 to 1925. Washington, 1926. v, 255 pp., charts.*

Current wholesale price index numbers bringing up to date the most important information given in this bulletin are published each month in the *Labor Review*; wholesale prices of individual commodities are published in the second month of each quarter; and in the third month of each quarter, wholesale price index numbers for the United States and foreign countries are given.

— *Bulletin No. 420: Handbook of American trade-unions. Washington, 1926. x, 199 pp.*

An advance summary of this bulletin was published in the *Labor Review* for August, 1926.

— Children's Bureau. *Publication No. 157: Proceedings of the third annual conference of State directors in charge of the local administration of the maternity and infancy act (act of Congress of November 23, 1921), held in Washington, D. C., January 11-13, 1926. Washington, 1926. v, 209 pp.*

— Women's Bureau. *Bulletin No. 54: Changing jobs. A study made by students in the economics course at the Bryn Mawr Summer School under the direction of Prof. Amy Hewes. Washington, 1926. v, 12 pp.*

This study is summarized briefly on page 125 of this issue.

Official—Foreign Countries

AUSTRALIA (NEW SOUTH WALES).—Bureau of Statistics. *Statistical register for 1924-25. Part X: Manufactories and works. Sydney, 1926. 65 pp.*

Detailed statistical information concerning establishments, persons employed, power used, value of machinery and plant, sex, wages, and production of employees, and the like.

— Registry of Friendly Societies. *Report for the 12 months ended June 30, 1925. Sydney, 1926. 20 pp.*

For the year covered the membership of friendly societies was 226,576, the receipts were £945,568 (pound at par = \$4.8665), and the amount paid in benefits was £601,673. The expenses of management were £145,634, or 15.4 per cent of the total income.

AUSTRALIA (QUEENSLAND).—Department of Labor. *Report of the director of labor and chief inspector of factories and shops for year ended June 30, 1926.* Brisbane, 1926. 37 pp.

During the year there were 58,761 original registrations at the employment exchanges. A study of the average monthly registration shows that unemployment to the extent of about 2,000 persons, or about 41 per cent of the total unemployment, exists throughout the year in the metropolitan area.

Under certain circumstances the labor department advances fares to unemployed persons who have a prospect of obtaining work elsewhere, with the understanding that the advances are to be returned if the work is obtained. The total value of fares thus advanced during the year amounted to £5,073 (pound at par = \$4.8665), as against £6,387 during the previous year, and the refunds to £3,015 as against £3,810.

One feature of the year was the introduction of the universal 44-hour week, with the amendment of existing awards which had provided for a longer week. "It is estimated that there are approximately 157,000 workers in the State at present employed under industrial awards and working 44 hours, or less, per week."

— *Third annual report on operations under the unemployed workers' insurance act of 1922.* Brisbane, 1926. 16 pp., charts.

A summary of this report is given on page 161 of this issue.

— Insurance Office. *Tenth annual report, for the year ending June 30, 1926.* Brisbane, 1926. 31 pp.

The report shows a prosperous year for all forms of Government insurance in Queensland, the life insurance department having been especially successful. "The fund for the year ended June 30, 1926, has been increased by the record addition of £211,486 (pound at par = \$4.8665) and now stands at £960,266. The premium income, after deduction of reinsurance premiums, has been increased by £23,886, and now amounts to £262,110."

— Registrar of Friendly Societies, Building Societies, and Industrial and Provident Societies. *Forty-first report.* Brisbane, 1926. 21 pp.

On June 30, 1925, there were 18 separately registered friendly societies with a membership of 62,305. The surplus for the half year amounted to £36,762 (pound at par = \$4.8665), and the total capital to £1,334,614 which was an advance of 5s. 6d. (shilling = 24.3 cents, penny = 2.03 cents) per member on the figures of the preceding year.

CANADA.—Parliament. House of Commons. Select Standing Committee on Industrial and International Relations. *Minutes of proceedings and evidence, session 1926.* Ottawa, 1926. x, 122 pp.

Data on minimum wage rates, taken from this report, are published on page 59 of this issue.

GERMANY.—[Reichsarbeitsministerium.] Reichsarbeitsverwaltung. *Jahresberichte der Gewerbeaufsichtsbeamten und Bergbehörden für das Jahr 1925.* Berlin, 1926. 4 vols.

Annual reports for the year 1925 of the factory and mine inspection services of the various German States.

GREAT BRITAIN.—Ministry of Labor. *Report for the year 1925.* London, 1926. 164 pp. (Cmd. 2736.)

A summary of the portions of this report relating to employment exchanges, unemployment insurance, and training for the unemployed in England is given on page 158 of this issue.

— Registry of Friendly Societies. *Report for the year 1924. Part 2: Friendly societies.* London, 1926. iii, 38 pp.

At the end of the year 1923 membership in friendly societies in Great Britain had increased to 22,437,294, and funds to £108,807,255 (pound at par = \$4.8665).

GREAT BRITAIN.—Treasury. *Unemployment Grants Committee. Fifth (interim) report of proceedings, June 25, 1925, to June 24, 1926.* London, 1926. 21 pp.

At the beginning of the year the committee decided that the time had come to cut down this work, and accordingly sent circulars to the local authorities, indicating that their policy was to limit the making of further grants, exception being made in the case of districts suffering from abnormal unemployment. This reduced materially the number of applications for assistance received.

During the year covered a total of 1,240 schemes, involving a total expenditure of £17,566,000 (pound at par=\$4.8665), were approved. The estimated cost to the State of the help to be given these plans amounted to approximately £6,000,000 for the group in which aid was promised in meeting interest and sinking-fund charges and £436,000 for the plans in which it is to be given in the form of a percentage of the wages bill. The State's liability for all help promised, since the beginning of the committee's operations, to plans of the first description amounts to approximately £36,000,000 and for help promised to plans of the second kind, to £5,230,000, making a total liability of £41,230,000 assumed by the State for grants made to works undertaken partly to relieve unemployment. The essential conditions for receiving a grant are that the work must be necessary and useful, but of a character which would not, in the normal course of affairs, be undertaken until some future time. The plans approved since the committee's work began cover public improvements of many kinds, ranging from roads and footpaths to the construction of docks, the development of land and the installation of water and electricity plants, sewers and sewage-disposal plants, and the like.

Unofficial

BOSTON CHAMBER OF COMMERCE. Bureau of Commercial and Industrial Affairs. *The cotton manufacturing industry of New England.* Boston, 1926. 24 pp., charts.

CARNEGIE-STIFTUNG FÜR INTERNATIONALEN FRIEDEN. *Die Regelung der Volksnährung im Kriege, von Hans Loewensfeld-Russ.* New Haven, Conn., Yale University Press, 1926. xxvi, 403 pp.

This study describes in detail the pre-war conditions of the food-products industries; the influence thereon of changed economic conditions, including the decrease in imports and the higher cost of living, during the war; and the necessity of new government regulations in regard to distribution of food by means of ration cards.

CASSAU, THEODOR. *Die Gewerkschaftsbewegung, ihre Soziologie und ihr Kampf.* Halberstadt, H. Meyer, 1925. ix, 355 pp.

A history of the trade-union movement in Germany.

CONFÉRENCE PATRONALE DE L'APPRENTISSAGE, 10-12 Décembre, 1925. *Compte rendu des travaux.* Paris, Société anonyme du Recueil Sirey, 1926. 375 pp.

The proceedings of a conference called by the General Confederation of French Production to consider subjects relating to apprenticeship and vocational education.

DOWD, JEROME. *The negro in American life.* New York, Century Co., 1926. xix, 611 pp.

A résumé of facts and opinions covering all aspects of the negro in relation to American life, intended as a contribution to the study of race relations.

ELLINGWOOD, ALBERT R., AND COOMBS, WHITNEY. *The Government and labor.* Chicago and New York, A. W. Shaw Co., 1926. xv, 639 pp.

This volume is intended specifically for use by college and university classes. The material comprising it is nearly all of an official nature—judicial decisions,

statutes, and administrative decisions and reports. It is an application of the case method to the study of that branch of the social science that relates to labor, especially in its relation to the Government. A well-chosen list of decisions, largely from the United States Supreme Court, reproductions or abridgments of important laws, and brief extracts from textbooks or summary treatments of definite phases of the subjects considered combine to supply a well-arranged body of material. Questions appended to the various sections call for an examination of outside sources, to which extent the book is not complete within itself; while expressions of opinions called for from the students imply lectures or other sources of information not available to the segregated reader. In other words, the book is practically restricted to its express objective of classroom use, being a development of experience, perfected by actual use in the classroom prior to final publication.

FACTS OF INDUSTRY, THE. *The case for publicity.* London, Macmillan & Co. (Ltd.), 1926. 62 pp.

This pamphlet is summarized on page 57 of this issue.

FONDAZIONE CARNEGIE PER LA PACE INTERNAZIONALE. Sezione di Storia ed Economia. *L'Alimentazione e la politica annonaria in Italia, per Riccardo Bachi.* New Haven, Yale University Press, 1926. xxviii, 660 pp.

An elaborate study of problems of food products and the political control of their sale, production, distribution, and transportation in Italy during the World War.

FREEMAN, FRANK N. *Mental tests, their history, principles and applications.* Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1926. xi, 503 pp., charts.

The use of tests in vocational guidance and selection is declared to be in its infancy. Although specific tests have been devised which constitute "a fairly reliable means" of selection in certain highly specialized vocations, we can not at present in most instances ascertain through mental tests whether or not one has the specialized capacities which may be required nor can we find out whether one has the nonintellectual traits, such as character, personality, energy, etc., which are necessary for success. Intelligence tests give, however, a rough indication as to whether the individual is more likely to make a success in an occupation of one level than in an occupation of another level. While mental tests do not solve the guidance problem they reduce the number of unknown factors entering into it and therefore render its solution less difficult.

FREIMÜLLER, EDUARD. *Die wirtschaftliche und soziale Stellung der Beamtin in der Schweiz.* Bern, Emil Sieber, 1925. 123 pp.

A study of the domestic and social status of Swiss female employees.

GACHON, JEAN. *Une application de la journée de huit heures.* La journée de huit heures et l'assistance publique de Paris. Paris, A. Pedone [1925?]. 95 pp.

The economic and social effects of the eight-hour day as shown in its application to the personnel of the general administration of public relief in Paris was chosen for study by the writer, as this organization presents all the characteristics of a State institution and some of a private enterprise and therefore offers a good example of the actual results of the institution of this reform measure. In the first part of the study there is a general summary of the methods of application and in the second a discussion of the juridical nature and consequences of the measure.

HANDBOOK AND DIRECTORY OF ADULT EDUCATION, 1926-1927. Compiled under the auspices of the British Institute of Adult Education. London, H. F. W. Deane & Sons [1926?]. 190 pp.

The purpose of this volume is to show in brief the existing situation in regard to adult education in England. The demand for such education is not only

growing rapidly but is making itself felt in a concrete manner, as is evidenced by the fact that the combined expenditure by the board of education and local education authorities in behalf of adult education has been doubled within three or four years.

INSTITUTE FOR GOVERNMENT RESEARCH. *Service monographs of the United States Government, No. 43: The Bureau of Naturalization, its history, activities, and organization, by Darrell Hevenor Smith.* Baltimore, Johns Hopkins Press, 1926. xii, 108 pp.

INTERNATIONAL FEDERATION OF TRADE-UNIONS. *Twenty-five years of international trade unionism, by J. Sassenbach.* Amsterdam, 1926. 140 pp.

A particularly interesting section of this very condensed summary of the history of the International Federation of Trade-Unions is that which includes excerpts from the war-time correspondence of European and American trade-union leaders.

LEVEAU LÉON. *Les allocations familiales dans l'industrie du bâtiment et des travaux publics en France et à l'étranger.* Paris, Société anonyme du Recueil Sirey, 1926. 180 pp.

In this history of the development of the family allowance system in the building industry and in public works, special emphasis is placed on the following points:

- (1) The origin, purposes and nature of these allowances.
- (2) The operation of the system in the building and public works fund of Paris and to some extent in other funds in France and elsewhere.
- (3) The possible future of such allowances.

LOTT, MERRILL R. *Wage scales and job evaluation: Scientific determination of wage rates on the basis of services rendered.* New York, Ronald Press Co., 1926. x, 161 pp., diagrams.

The author describes the purpose of this study as follows:

This book has been written to be practically useful. It does not deal with theories of wages or the economics of compensation. In contrast, it presents results of extensive, actual experience in developing an equitable wage program for a manufacturing concern. The methods described have been applied with success and possess desirable features, which seemingly are of general application.

MENG, T. P., AND GAMBLE, S. D. *Prices, wages, and the standard of living in Peking, 1900-1924.* Peking, 1926. 113 pp., charts. (Special supplement to the Chinese Social and Political Science Review, July, 1926.)

A digest of this study is given on page 216 of this issue.

MINE INSPECTORS' INSTITUTE OF AMERICA. *Proceedings, Pittsburgh, Pa., May, 1926.* [Hartford, Conn.?] 1926. 110 pp., charts.

NATIONAL BUREAU OF ECONOMIC RESEARCH (Inc.). *Publication No. 8: Business annals, by Willard Long Thorp.* New York, 1926. 380 pp., charts.

A detailed presentation, by years, of available data regarding business cycles in the United States and various foreign countries, showing the experiences of each country in passing through the successive phases of cyclical changes. The introduction discusses the uses, scope, trustworthiness, and significance of the material presented.

SPELLING, THOMAS C., AND LEWIS, JAMES HAMILTON. *A treatise on the law governing injunctions.* St. Louis, Thomas Law Book Co., 1926. xix, 851 pp.

Special attention is given to recent developments in the use of the injunctive process, both as a principal and as an ancillary remedy. Divergencies of opinion are recognized where they exist, but not elaborately developed, citations permitting further pursuit of the points involved if desired. Of particular interest to labor is Chapter 8, "Prevention of injuries to trade or business," with an extensive general note discussing "the so-called labor provisions of the Clayton Act." The method of the authors has been to cite the cases liberally,

with brief statements on the principal points, the subject matter of the notes considerably exceeding in space that used by the text accompanying the presentation of this subject. The volume affords an up-to-date presentation of the subject matter, fully indexed and profusely furnished with citations of cases.

UNIVERSITY DEBATERS' ANNUAL. *Constructive and rebuttal speeches delivered in debates of American colleges and universities during the college year 1925-26.* Edited by Edith M. Phelps. New York, H. W. Wilson Co., 1926. ix, 407 pp.

Two subjects of interest to labor included in this volume are child labor and a Government commission for regulation of the coal industry.

WARNE, COLSTON E. *The consumers' cooperative movement in Illinois.* Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1926. xiv, 420 pp.

This book is reviewed on page 111 of this issue.

WEEKS, WALTER S. *Ventilation of mines.* New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co. (Inc.), 1926. x, 228 pp., charts, illustrations.

